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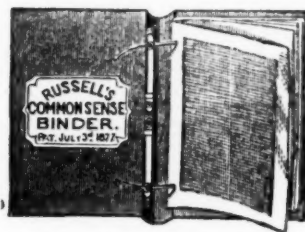
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 19, 1885.

The Week.

WE extend our deepest sympathies to those Republican journals which started out a few weeks ago with the assurance to their readers that President Cleveland's civil-service-reform professions were all humbug. They are having a very hard time in explaining what is happening, or rather failing to happen, at Washington. When the office-holders turned up in great numbers after the inauguration, they were sure that after a few days of resistance the President would surrender. Now they have to admit that he has not done this, and that "the boys" are one by one going home in despair. Some explanation must be found, and it has been put forth on the theory that the President is going to wait till the Senate adjourns, when he will be able to make appointments without the rigid scrutiny to which they are now subjected. Another point which needed explanation was the charge that "Hubert O. Thompson had the inside track for the Collectorship of New York." This has been made nearly every day since the election in November, but it is abandoned now, and the reason given is that the President fears that the Senate would refuse confirmation. In this way any sort of disgraceful design may be attributed to the President, and when he fails to fulfil the prediction, the failure can be charged to his fear of the Senate.

There are three kinds of people who are very anxious for the President to make the mistake of not reappointing Mr. Pearson as Postmaster of this city, and they are combining their energies in a final effort to accomplish their purpose. The office-seekers do not want him reappointed because the precedent would be an ominous one for them, and because they want the patronage of the place. The Blaine extremists, who are hoping and praying for a failure of Cleveland's Administration, do not want him reappointed for obvious reasons. The late Butler organ, the *Sun*, does not want him reappointed for precisely similar reasons. In fact, the "enemies he has made" are unanimous in desiring to see the President make a slip in this very important matter. So eager are they that they are supplying him with reasons for making it. The Blaine organ tells him it is really not worth his while to keep Mr. Pearson in office, because to do so will be taken by the public as a "blind." The Butler organ tells him that the reappointment may please a few Independents, but "may fail to please a good many Democrats," and that while Mr. Pearson has been a good Postmaster there are not wanting Democrats who could run the office just as well. The spoilsmen do their part by reproducing an old and exploded charge that Mr. Pearson was at one time interested in some express contracts for carrying letters, and ought to be removed as an unfit person.

The objection has been raised against the reappointment of Postmaster Pearson that since it is to be made (if at all) at the instance of the Independents, it will be in the nature of a political *quid pro quo*, and, therefore, not in the interest of civil-service reform. It is rather freely assumed that President Cleveland would not make such an appointment of his own motion, but only in obedience to pressure from a certain number of his supporters in the late campaign, and that therefore it would be as much in harmony with the spoils system as though the office were given to Tammany Hall, as an offset to some other office given to the County Democracy. The fact that Mr. Pearson is himself not an Independent makes this reasoning a trifle obscure to the common understanding, which has somehow coupled the spoils system with the instinct of human selfishness. A spoils system grounded upon principles of self-denial is something of a puzzle. It is so much at variance with prevailing ideas that it requires elucidation. Yet there is a substratum of truth in the particular objection made to Mr. Pearson's reappointment. If the Independents had asked for it as a return for their votes, and as a recognition of themselves as a distinct body of Mr. Cleveland's supporters, an appointment thus made would not be in the line of what we understand by civil-service reform. What really detracts from the force of this objection is, that the Independents have made no such request. They have never thought of hiring Mr. Cleveland to do anything. They did not support him in order to secure the appointment or the reappointment of anybody to any place, but to establish the principle that "public office is a public trust." They conceive that Mr. Pearson has illustrated this principle in a conspicuous manner, against heavy odds of party pressure, and that his reappointment would signalize the President's adherence to the same principle as perhaps no other act could do. They are not unmindful of the fact that in reappointing Mr. Pearson the President would go a step further than he has ever gone, or promised to go, in this direction. Nevertheless, they indulge the hope that so favorable an opportunity of stamping purely business methods upon purely business administration will not be neglected.

Secretary Whitney has performed a simple act of justice in restoring Commander Evans, of the navy, to his former position of Inspector of the Fifth Light-house District. He was removed last July by Secretary Chandler and put on waiting orders at half-pay, simply because he would not allow political interference by Mahone in the affairs of his department. There was no other complaint made of his conduct. He had been in the naval service twenty-three years, twelve of which he had passed at sea. He was a faithful and efficient officer, but he would not consent to Mahone's wishes in regard to the selection of subordinates. His chief offence was in refusing to retain an incompetent colored man as a lighthouse-keeper. Pressure of all kinds was brought to bear upon him both in Virginia and

at Washington, but he resisted it all, and at Mahone's instigation Secretary Chandler removed him. A Democrat was put in the place, and he now retires in the interest of justice and civil-service reform.

The evidence that Mr. Manning was grossly imposed upon in the matter of Higgins, the Appointment Clerk, by Senator Gorman, is very strong, and we are quite ready to believe it. But the plea which comes from Washington, that "it will not happen again," hardly meets the occasion. There is only one way for Mr. Manning to set himself and the Administration right with the public, and that is to get rid of Higgins. We are not consoled for having one Higgins by the assurance that we shall not have two, because one is too many. The appointment has nowhere excited more surprise and regret than in Baltimore, where Higgins is well known as a bad specimen of the ward politician, and we believe steps are being taken to put his personal and political record before the world, in a way which will make his retention not only a mistake but a great scandal. We trust that Mr. Manning will anticipate all this by removing him. It would be absurd, it seems to us, to shake the daily and rapidly-growing confidence of men of all parties in the Administration, in order to oblige Senator Gorman or give a man like Higgins \$2,500 a year. Besides, if there was one thing more than another in which Mr. Manning was supposed to be strong, it was his shrewdness as a politician—that is, his capacity for detecting attempts to humbug him. He ought not to sacrifice this for the sake of one small place.

Notwithstanding reports which have come from Washington implying that the contest between Mr. "Phil" Thompson, of Kentucky, and Mr. Miller, of West Virginia, for the appointment of Commissioner of Internal Revenue was a trial of strength between Mr. Carlisle and Mr. Randall, or more broadly between the friends and opponents of revenue reform, we can perceive no reason why it should bear any strange complexion, or rise to the dignity of a national episode. Mr. Phil Thompson made himself notorious a few years ago by murdering an unarmed man in cold blood on a railway train, for alleged corruption of his wife through her unfortunate propensity for drink. He had previously shot two other men in a court-room. It was said, and we believe truly, that in this affair he was defending his father against a personal assault. He was acquitted in both cases, and afterward elected to Congress. The view taken by President Cleveland of his fitness for a bureau appointment would naturally be different from that taken by a Kentucky jury, or a constituency among whom the carrying of deadly weapons in court-rooms and on railway trains is considered consistent with high civilization. It is altogether fitting that Mr. Thompson's civic honors should be left wholly to the determination of his friends and neighbors, and it is not necessary to import into President Cleveland's decision of

the contest between him and his competitor any deep-laid scheme to decide weighty questions affecting the public revenue or the next Speakership contest. There are plenty of Democrats to hold all the offices who have never shot anybody on sight, and probably Kentucky can furnish her quota without encroaching upon the ranks of those who have been tried at one time or another for homicide.

The sentence of two years' imprisonment in the penitentiary and a fine of \$5,000 each, passed upon the professors of "fine work" in the Chicago election cases, will be a wholesome lesson to ballot-box stuffers in all parts of the country, since the law under which the conviction took place is a statute of the United States, applicable to every precinct where a member of Congress is voted for. It may be said that this proceeding in Judge Blodgett's court is a new encroachment of the Federal judiciary upon State jurisdiction. The fraud actually committed was a fraud in the election of members of the State Legislature. In order to commit it the ballots cast for Congressman in the district were unlawfully tampered with, although the result was not changed. The transaction brought it within the purview of the United States statute governing the election of members of the House of Representatives. It is contended by the counsel for the prisoners that a jurisdiction acquired by mere technicality should not operate to deprive citizens of their liberty. But it is difficult to see how a court is to draw a line between excusable and non-excusable ballot-stuffing. It is true that Mackin and his pals did not intend to cheat the voters out of the Congressman of their choice, but the law does not confine itself to frauds which change the result of an election. It prohibits and punishes any meddling with the ballots at all. If the jurisdiction is technical, the crime was real enough to warrant the heaviest punishment that the law allows.

Senator Sherman's refusal to serve on the Committee on Finance has drawn attention to the composition of that committee as regards the silver question. It appears to have been made up, as the previous one was, with a bare majority in favor of a suspension, sooner or later, of the compulsory coinage of silver. Senators Morrill, Sherman, Allison, Aldrich, Miller (of N. Y.), and McPherson, are counted as favorable to the bill reported by the Committee at the recent session, while Senators Jones (of Nevada), Voorhees, Beck, Harris, and Vance are supposed to be on the other side. The retirement of Mr. Sherman will not change the complexion of the Committee in this regard, as the vacancy will be filled by an anti-silver man. Mr. Sherman's action is said to have been prompted by personal pique, because he was not given the chairmanship of the Committee, which he held before he became Secretary of the Treasury under the Hayes Administration. It is not presumable that this was the real cause, since Mr. Sherman has found no difficulty in serving on that Committee under Mr. Morrill's chairmanship for the past four years. Looking over the list of committees, we observe that the only chairmanship accorded to Mr. Sherman is that of the Committee on the Li-

brary, which is rather an ornamental than a distinguished position. In contrast with this assignment, Senator Plumb is made Chairman of Public Lands, Senator Cameron of Naval Affairs, Senator Miller (of California) of Foreign Relations, Senator Pike of Claims, and Senator McMillan of Commerce. All of these Senators are by a long distance the juniors of Mr. Sherman in terms of service, and still more so in experience and reputation. While Mr. Sherman would not be justified in making an issue with his fellow-Senators on the chairmanship of the Finance Committee, he is clearly entitled to a leading position in the organization of the Senate, and this has not been accorded to him. Both Mahone and Riddleberger have received more consideration from the Republican caucus, the former being Chairman of Public Buildings and the latter of Manufactures.

The drift of public sentiment in the countries of the Latin Monetary Union appears to be in favor of the coinage of silver on the basis of its actual value in gold. The Union expires at the end of the present year unless renewed, and the terms of its renewal are now under consideration. If a new arrangement is not made, each country will be bound to take care of its own silver, and the circulation of Italian pieces in France, and vice versa, will come to an end. Events have long outgrown the Union. It ceased to have any real vitality when France, Belgium, and Switzerland closed their mints to free coinage. Its operation since that time has been conservative and useful, but the original purpose has been superseded by the introduction of the single gold standard. Speculation is rife on the other side of the water on the question whether the United States will join in a movement to establish the double standard on an entirely new ratio—that is, the ratio of the market value of the two metals. This is a question not easy to answer, since the political supporters of silver are committed to the "dollar of the fathers," the ratio of 16 to 1, and have as large a contempt for "abroad" as they had when the Silver Bill was passed, while the commercial classes do not believe that any ratio can be maintained by law or treaty which will hold good against changes in market value caused by the variations of supply and demand. Inasmuch, however, as President Cleveland has expressed the hope that measures may be taken to prevent the two metals from "parting company," we presume there would be a general acquiescence in the adoption of the market-value ratio as an experiment, unless the Bland faction should oppose it. One of the consequences of the adoption of this ratio would be the retirement and recoinage of our existing stock of silver dollars, and the wiping out of the imaginary profit which the Government has made by the coinage of the eighty-five-cent dollars, and the acknowledgment of the actual loss incurred in the operation.

In the proceedings before the Hazen court-martial on Monday, the defendant tried to show that the Secretary of War had no jurisdiction in the matter of the Arctic expeditions, but this the Court ruled out. His counsel then made

a vigorous attack on the Secretary's motives, maintaining that he was actuated by such deep-seated hatred of the Chief Signal Officer, that he procured the theft of certain letters from General Hazen's desk, and rewarded the thief with a special appointment. Indeed, this hatred reached such a point that the Secretary's "body exhaled malice whenever the Chief Signal Officer was named." This was certainly a most extraordinary phenomenon, because physical exhalations can only be detected by the smell, and the precise odor of malice is, we think, generally unknown even to medical men. This reliance on physical indications of a man's state of mind, by counsel before courts-martial, is, however, not new. One of the witnesses before the Fitz-John Porter court-martial, Col. T. C. H. Smith, swore that he was so satisfied by the expression of Porter's countenance, although he had never seen him before, that he was going to betray the army the day before the celebrated march from Bristow Station, that he would have felt justified "before God" in shooting him on the spot. Judge-Advocate Holt, in summing up, dwelt strongly on this testimony, alleging that "the tone of the voice, the expression of the eye, and the play of the features" of the accused, as remembered by a witness, though he could not reproduce them, "afforded a language more to be relied on than that of the lips." In fact, he came very near enunciating the great doctrine that mental conditions may be inferred, for judicial purposes, from bodily odors, by declaring that "great crimes, like great virtues, often reveal themselves to close observers of character and conduct as unmistakably as a flower-garden announces its presence by the odors it breathes in the air."

Three important changes in postal rates will go into effect on the first of July next. The postage on letters after that date will be two cents an ounce instead of two cents a half-ounce as at present. The postage on newspapers sent to regular subscribers, and on sample copies sent out by publishers, will be reduced one-half. All cities having more than 4,000 inhabitants will be authorized to establish a special ten-cent stamp delivery service, by which letters can be hastened to their destination. All these changes were recommended in the last annual report of the Postmaster-General. About the wisdom of the first two there is very little doubt. The ten-cent-stamp project is an experiment, and its wisdom is still to be tested. Provision is made for establishing this service on a separate basis from the regular delivery, and specification is made that it shall not be permitted to interfere in any way with the latter. There is no apparent reason why it should interfere. The argument that if more prompt delivery can be secured for ten cents than for two, it follows that the present system is very defective, does not bear examination. A special messenger with ten or a dozen letters can, of course, make better time than a regular delivery agent with a bagful of letters and papers.

An investigation of wage reductions is furnished by *Bradstreet's* as an appendix to its re-

cent compilation of the statistics of unemployed labor in the United States. The conclusion reached upon the latter point was, that there were at that time (December, 1884) 350,000 fewer operatives at work than were employed in 1882, a loss of 14 per cent. The tables of wage reductions embrace thirty-eight leading industries, which are included under six principal heads, viz.: food products, textiles, metals, lumber, building, and leather and minor manufactures. The rates of wages are compared with those of July, 1882. The singular result is reached that the industries protected by tariff duties are those in which the heaviest reductions in wages have been made, and that these reductions are generally in proportion to the amount of protection accorded to them. In woollen and cotton mills the reduction has been 25 to 30 per cent., while there has been no reduction in the wages of the unprotected house-builders, carpenters, stone-cutters, and brickmakers. The reduction in wages of iron-mill workers has been 15 to 22 per cent., while the pay of butchers, millers, bakers, tanners, and printers has not declined at all. Wages in the silk trade have fallen 15 to 25 per cent. Those of agricultural-implement makers remain substantially unchanged. The reductions in wages, however, are not in any case equal to the fall in prices of the articles produced, and this signifies that the loss has been mainly borne by capital in the shape of diminished profits.

The action of the Union League Club last week, reversing the policy of the Committee on Admissions, who had adopted a political test for new membership not prescribed in the charter or by-laws, carries two plain implications. One of these is, that President Cleveland's Administration has gained ground in the estimation of Republicans since it came into power. The other is, that an increasing number of Republicans are now willing to admit that the nomination of Blaine gave an exceptional character to the recent Presidential campaign, and did really, in some sort, justify Republicans in voting for Cleveland. Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, who has lost none of his habit of telling unpleasant truths, declared very distinctly his opinion that the last election was "peculiar." It was not necessary to state what the peculiarities were—everybody understood them. The only peculiarity appropriate to the discussion was, that something had occurred which made it excusable for Republicans to vote the Democratic ticket. Directly upon this hint the Club voted, by a majority of two in a total vote of 324, to overrule a decision of the chair which was adverse to the Griswold-Roosevelt resolution. The Mugwumps thereafter had it all their own way and passed the resolution, in a form modified so as to spare the feelings of the Committee on Admissions, but still sufficiently precise to abolish the test.

The movement in Harvard College against compulsory attendance at morning prayers has again failed, the petition of the remonstrants having been rejected by the Corporation. The petition asked simply that undergraduates over twenty-one years of age should be allowed to exercise their option in the matter, and that those under that age should be governed by the option of their parents. The decision is very curious

when taken in connection with the yearly extension which is given to the elective system in the choice of studies. One would think that there was nothing in a young man's life on which he himself or his parents should be so competent to form an opinion as the time and place at which he should pray to Almighty God, and that there was no duty to which it was more absurd to drive him by law under defined penalties. And yet this is what the college authorities, who are steadily converting Harvard into a university in the large sense, insist on doing. The President and Fellows unluckily do not give their reasons, but the only creditable reasons must be either the belief that God is pleased with the presence in a chapel or church of unwilling, irritated, and irreverent worshippers, brought thither by the fear of temporal punishment, and does not mind the set against all religion which such a process is very apt to give young men; or the belief that a man is benefited by being present in any place in which prayers are being offered, no matter in what state of mind he may be, and no matter what agency has brought him there. But neither of these reasons is modern, or, if we may make a bull, rational.

The Crown Solicitors, who have discovered treason in Parnell's advice to treat the Prince of Wales with cold neutrality, and his visit inopportune, may be good judges of the law, but it is to be hoped that "the Castle" will not commit the egregious folly of prosecuting him. No conviction could, of course, be obtained without packing a jury, and the excitement and fury the affair would create throughout Ireland would be a very undesirable accompaniment to the Prince's tour. Mr. Gladstone's proposal that Earl Spencer should receive some signal mark of royal favor for the conspicuous ability he has displayed in the management of Irish affairs, is another illustration of the muddled condition of the mind of even the ablest Englishmen about Ireland. The theory which is preached to the Irish by English statesmen is, that Ireland is a portion of the Empire in all respects enjoying full equality of rights with England. If this were true, of course the Minister would not venture to recommend the Crown to reward an officer whose conduct in office was condemned, whether justly or unjustly, by the vast majority of the people within his jurisdiction. That it is not true, is shown by the fact that the Prime Minister does not care one cent what the bulk of the Irish people think about Earl Spencer, and, in fact, probably considers the hostility he has excited as one of his strong claims to reward. Earl Spencer is honored in virtue of what Englishmen think about him, and in spite of what Irishmen think about him, and largely, too, in virtue of that English superstition which Matthew Arnold so pleasantly ridiculed in his late article in the *Nineteenth Century*—the belief that an "English gentleman" is a governor under whom any race or tribe on earth ought to be glad to live. Even so open-minded a journal as the *Spectator* has often marvelled over the perversity of the Irish in not enjoying the rule of such a thoroughly good specimen

of the English gentleman as Earl Spencer undoubtedly is.

There is really no essential change, as far as we can make out from the telegrams, in the Afghan trouble. There appears to be, as usual, a strong desire at St. Petersburg to avoid hostilities, combined with a strong belief in Central Asia that there is going to be war. Certainly both parties on the ground seem to be getting ready for it. The British are hurrying troops up to Quetta, and the Russians are reinforcing General Komaroff, and the Afghans are fortifying, probably under the advice of Sir Peter Lumsden, who is on the ground as the British member of the Boundary Commission. The talk of the Russian agents both in London and St. Petersburg appears to be very moderate. Unfortunately the dispute is one in which it is as easy as possible for both parties to be in the right, and this is always the hardest kind of dispute to settle. The Afghans have undoubtedly often exercised jurisdiction over the territory claimed by Russia, but no boundary line was ever traced because outside was the desert and the wandering Turkomans. Russia now claims all that the Turkomans wandered over, which would—not to go into particulars—carry their line not along the base, but along the crest of the mountains.

The arrest of Zebehr Pasha on suspicion of treasonable relations with the Mahdi is one of the most curious incidents of the ever-changing Egyptian drama. Zebehr Pasha was once Governor of the Sudan, and while there an active and hardened slave trader. Gordon, who came after him, held one of his sons as a hostage, and hanged him for some breach of faith on the father's part. Subsequently Zebehr seems to have overlooked this little slight, and become good friends with Gordon, who, when he found his own pacificatory mission was a failure, advocated Zebehr's restoration to his old place—a measure which, however, the Government at home would not sanction. Zebehr is now in jail on the charge of secretly corresponding with and aiding the Mahdi, of which he is doubtless quite capable.

An article in the March *Macmillan's Magazine* on "Irresponsible Opinion" has some excellent remarks addressed to newspaper strategists in particular, and people generally who keep talking with positiveness about things which they cannot by any possibility understand even one-fiftieth part as well as those whom they criticise. The writer says:

"There is a familiar provincialism used in depreciation of such self-praise as is felt to be inevitable. 'Though I say it as shouldn't.' Might not this formula be extended to all such enforced judgments as I am contemplating? As thus, 'I am decidedly of the opinion that the attack at Tel-el-Kebir should have begun an hour earlier than it did, but seeing that I have been engaged all my life in the manufacture of small-clothes, and that although a volunteer I have never seen active service, 'I say it as shouldn't.'—Sir Garnet being so much more likely to be right than I." "

And also:

"We cannot all be expected to emulate the sobriety of that Parisian bootmaker, a hero of fable—I am afraid—who, on being asked his opinion of the respective merits of Turanne and the Grand Condé on the same stricken field, replied: 'I made the boots of both gentlemen; as far as boots go there is not a pin to choose between them; beyond that I cannot go, for it lies outside my profession.'"

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 11, to TUESDAY, March 17, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THROUGHOUT the week the office-seekers at Washington have been given little encouragement. President Cleveland's policy of going slowly in all changes is, it appears, to be rigidly enforced. Only a few nominations were sent to the Senate on Monday; among them Edward D. Clark, of Mississippi, to be Assistant Secretary of the Interior. He is a young and active lawyer and is well spoken of.

President Cleveland on Monday nominated Joseph S. Miller, of West Virginia, to be Commissioner of Internal Revenue. Senators Beck and Blackburn, of Kentucky, and Speaker Carlisle, who were urging Congressman Phil Thompson, were very much disappointed. Mr. Randall favored Miller, who is State Auditor of West Virginia.

It is believed that the President has requested Mr. Foster, Minister of Spain, to remain in office. The Administration is understood to be of opinion that modifications of the Spanish treaty can be secured which will be advantageous to the United States, and that Minister Foster, in view of his experience, can be of more service than a new Minister. Mr. Foster is making arrangements to return to Madrid within a short time.

Senator Bayard has informed the State Department clerks that they will not be removed except for inefficiency.

Eugene Higgins, of Baltimore, was on Wednesday made Appointment Clerk in the Treasury Department by Secretary Manning, in place of Constant S. Trevitt, of New York, who was recently promoted to fill the vacancy created by the resignation of Mr. Butler, and who had been in the service more than twenty years. The appointment has elicited severe criticism. Mr. Higgins is a Maryland politician, appointed on the recommendation of Senator Gorman.

Civil-service reformers from New York and Maryland, now in Washington, say they have received assurances from the President and from Assistant-Secretary Fairchild that the selection of Mr. Higgins as Appointment Clerk of the Treasury Department was a surprise to them, and that the mistake made in that appointment is not likely to be repeated.

On Friday morning Secretary Manning made a material reduction in the force of the Special Agents' Division of the Treasury Department, by which it is expected that \$40,000 will annually be saved. The services of forty persons in all have been dispensed with. The list includes six special agents, twenty-six special inspectors of customs, and ten employees whose names are borne on the so-called "Fraud Roll." This action reduces the number of agents to twenty-two, the number of inspectors to twenty-five, and the fraud-roll employees to fifteen. It is stated at the Department that these changes are made solely in the interest of economy, and that no new appointments will be made to fill the vacancies created.

Commander R. D. Evans, who was removed from the Inspectorship of the Fifth Light-house District by ex-Secretary Chandler, has been reinstated by Secretary Whitney. Commander Silas Casey, who was appointed to succeed Evans, has been ordered to settle his accounts. The removal of Commander Evans, it is alleged by his friends, was for political reasons.

A written message from President Cleveland was sent to the Senate on Thursday for the purpose of withdrawing the Nicaragua Canal treaty and the Spanish reciprocity treaty, in order that they may be considered by the new Administration. They were returned to him on Friday.

President Cleveland on Friday issued a proclamation, warning the Oklahoma invaders

that the military power will be used against them if they persist in unlawfully entering the Territory.

Some of the bad results of hasty legislation in the closing days of Congress have already been discovered. In the Naval Appropriation Bill the section which appropriated \$500,000 for the armament of the new cruisers is omitted, and in the Sundry Civil Bill the item appropriating \$5,500 for telegraph poles and material to aid in extending the life-saving service is omitted.

The Post-office Appropriation Bill, as passed by the recent Congress, provides for the following important changes, which will take effect on July 1: The weight of all single-rate letters is increased from one-half an ounce each or fraction thereof to one ounce each or fraction thereof. The same increase of weight is allowed for drop letters, whether mailed at stations where there is a free delivery or where carrier service is not established. All newspapers sent from the office of publication, including sample copies, or when sent from a news agency to actual subscribers thereto, or to other news agents, shall be entitled to transmission at the rate of 1 cent per pound or fraction thereof, the postage to be prepaid. This is a reduction of one-half from existing rates. A special stamp of the value of 10 cents may be issued, which, when attached to a letter, in addition to the lawful postage, shall entitle the letter to immediate delivery at any place containing 4,000 population or over, within the carrier limit of any free-delivery office, or within one mile of the post-office; and such specially stamped letters shall be delivered between 7 o'clock A. M. and midnight.

The Republicans in the Senate have seated Senator Blair, appointed by the Governor of New Hampshire, thus establishing the precedent that a Governor may appoint at the beginning of a new Senatorial term, if the State Legislature adjourns without an election. The opposition held that such a case was not a "vacancy" in the meaning of the Federal law, which was held to apply only to unexpired terms.

The Delaware Legislature on Tuesday elected Attorney-General George Gray (Dem.) to succeed Mr. Bayard in the United States Senate.

At the regular monthly meeting of the Union League Club of this city on Thursday the following resolution, offered by Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, was adopted: "That it is unadvisable for the Committee on Admissions to question the proposers of candidates for admission to the club as to how they (the candidates) voted at the last Presidential election, and said committee is hereby requested to omit any such questions in the future." This action grew out of the fact that the Committee on Admissions had recently made such requests.

General Husted reported his Supply Bill to the Assembly at Albany on Wednesday. Its total amount is \$809,885 97. The amount of last year's bill was \$606,421 15. The increase is due to the necessities of the prisons and penitentiaries, and to precautions to be taken to prevent a cholera epidemic. At least \$100,000 of this increase Mr. Husted attributes directly to the abolition of contract labor in the prisons.

In the State Senate at Albany, on Monday, the Gibbs bill for freedom of worship in State institutions was debated in Committee of the Whole. Mr. Gibbs proposed the following amendments: First, that the religious services allowed should be only on Sundays; second, that religious ministrations be permitted only on two week days; and third, that the managers may pay for the religious services if they see fit. The debate was adjourned without any vote being reached.

The New York Assembly on Wednesday afternoon passed a resolution for final adjournment on April 23.

The Connecticut House on Friday, by a vote of 94 to 63, passed a bill allowing women to vote at school elections.

Joseph Chesterfield Mackin and William J. Gallagher, the two Democratic ballot-box stuffers at Chicago, were on Thursday sentenced to the penitentiary for two years.

The railroad strike on the Gould Southwestern system ended on Sunday through the intervention of Governor Martin and the Kansas State Railroad Commissioners. As a result of a conference it was resolved to restore the rate of wages which prevailed prior to last September, and to give the men one and a half time for all extra work. This was more than they asked for, their request being that the railroad companies restore the rates which prevailed prior to the January cut.

A partial and annular eclipse of the sun was successfully observed in many parts of the United States on Monday.

General Grant is slowly but surely failing in strength, and his physicians say that life cannot be prolonged for many weeks.

Charles W. McCune, President of the Buffalo Courier Company, died on Saturday, at the age of 53. He was prominent in the Democratic politics of the State, and was a friend of President Cleveland.

Mr. Charles Tracy, a prominent lawyer of this city, died on Saturday at the age of 76.

FOREIGN.

The London Times on Wednesday announced that the Russians had advanced further into Afghan territory, and that a collision was imminent. It also announced that the British Government had ordered Gen. Sir Peter Lumsden to organize a system of defence. London financial circles were somewhat excited over these reports. British consols fell 11-16 of 1 per cent., and Russian securities 2 per cent. in consequence of the news.

The Afghan war alarm was somewhat abated in London on Wednesday night by the statement of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in the House of Commons that the Government was uninformed of any further advance having been made by the Russians in Afghanistan, and that he believed there was no foundation for the report. The officials of the Russian Embassy at London denied that preparations for war were making by Russia on the Afghan frontier.

On Thursday the alarm was again renewed by a British Cabinet meeting at an unusual hour. It was reported that the Cabinet decided to address a serious representation to the Russian Government, that if through any Russian advance in Afghanistan a conflict results with the Amir's troops, Russia must accept the consequences, as England is bound to guard Afghan territory. In the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon, Mr. Gladstone said that England's relation with Russia had not been improved during the past few days.

The war feeling was greatly allayed when, in the House of Commons on Friday afternoon, Mr. Gladstone announced that an agreement had been arrived at between Russia and England, by the terms of which neither the Russian nor Afghan forces would advance any further on either side of the frontier. A Conservative member asked whether the Amir of Afghanistan had accepted this agreement. To this question Mr. Gladstone made no reply. Sir Stafford Northcote asked whether the agreement was a permanent or temporary arrangement. Mr. Gladstone replied that the agreement was without any specific time limit. The best description he could give, he said, was that the agreement should last as long as there was occasion for it. It provides against a rupture of friendly relations between the two Governments in the event of a collision between the Afghan and Russian outposts, which might possibly occur while instructions are being conveyed to the opposing commanders. This announcement was heard with an almost general sense of relief by the House, as it afforded a reasonable hope of peace.

The British Cabinet do not insist upon the withdrawal of the Russian troops from the

outposts during the deliberations of the Joint Commission. Sir Peter Lumsden has received certain discretionary powers touching his course in the event of a dangerous Russian advance. The Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for War, stated on Friday evening, in the House of Commons, that it was impossible to deny that there was still cause for great anxiety regarding the relations between Great Britain and Russia.

M. Lessar, the Russian member of the Afghan Boundary Commission, in an interview in London on Sunday, stated that Russia desired a frontier boundary line starting at the Herirud, a little south of Zulfikar, thence running east to Tchemeni-baid, on the Kushk River, thence northeast, leaving Murghabi-bala to the Afghans, to a point a few miles south of Panjdeh, and thence in a direct line northeast to Khodja-salih. Russia, he said, had never admitted that the frontier line due east from Serakhs to Khodja-salih was the correct one. He declared that Russia had no designs on Herat.

It is reported that Sir Peter Lumsden has arrived at Herat, and that the Afghans are actively fortifying the city. The Russian forces occupying Merv consist of a battalion of infantry, a regiment of dragoons, and some Cossacks. At Askabad there are about 8,000 troops of all arms. It is reported that Russia has been sounding Turkey with reference to a Russia-Turkish alliance, and that the Porte has replied that Turkey will remain neutral.

Reports were current in Calcutta on Sunday of an actual collision between the Russians and Afghans. The Russian General, Komaroff, who is in the disputed territory, has been given peremptory orders to avoid provoking the Afghans.

Mr. Gladstone explained in the House of Commons on Monday that Earl Granville had telegraphed his (Mr. Gladstone's) exact words to St. Petersburg, asking whether M. de Giers, Russian Prime Minister, endorsed as correct the statement of the agreement reached with Russia on the Afghan question. Mr. Gladstone added that it was rather an arrangement than an agreement. In the evening the Government announced that a telegram had been received from St. Petersburg fully endorsing Mr. Gladstone's statement. The Marquis of Hartington explained that the Russians occupied Khatun and Akrobat, and that the Afghans still occupy Panjdeh. The London newspapers on Tuesday commented on the arrangement with Russia as very unsatisfactory. On Tuesday afternoon Mr. Gladstone read a despatch from St. Petersburg giving M. de Giers's assurance that the Russian troops will not advance from the positions now occupied by them, provided the Afghans do not advance, or unless some extraordinary reason be given, such as disturbances in Panjdeh.

It is announced that the total number of Russian troops at present in Asiatic Russia is but 30,000, and that these are not concentrated, but scattered over a very wide area.

In the course of a dispute in the House of Commons on Thursday night, Mr. Gladstone said he wished it distinctly understood that Prince Bismarck's despatch of May 5 had never been delivered to the English Government. Mr. Gladstone declared that he would stand behind no man in the value he attached to the friendship of Germany. He must say, however, that he was not prepared to admit that the friendship of any country in the world was now or ever had been necessary to enable England to maintain her position. He thought that where Germany's colonizing operations were bona fide and consistent with the rights of all parties, England, with due regard to the claims of her own colonists, ought to meet Germany in no grudging spirit, and should refrain from discussing the occupation of this or that spot after the manner of hucksters, showing a disposition to grudge what she is unable to hold. If Germany became a colonizing Power he would only say God-speed to her. He hoped that she would become Eng-

land's partner and ally in the work of civilizing the world. This was the spirit in which he viewed the matter, and, regardless of this or that despatch, Germany would have the best and heartiest wishes of the English Government, and every encouragement that it was in their power to give.

The Berlin North German Gazette (Bismarck's organ) says there will be no further polemic between Germany and England. Earl Granville's statement in Parliament was perfectly correct. The result of Count Herbert Bismarck's special mission to England relative to German interests in West Africa is reported to be as follows: England concedes to Germany the whole of the Cameroons country, with the exception of the mission town Victoria, where the Germans are alleged to have hauled down the British flag. England further agrees not to interfere with any action Germany may take in the entire country from the south bank of the Rio del Rey, a small river emptying into the Bight of Biafra, some distance north of the Cameroons, to the Gaboon, which enters the sea very near the equator. Germany, on the other hand, recognizes the supremacy of England over the country lying between the north bank of the Rio del Rey and Lagos. This covers the basin of the Lower Niger.

The London Press Association denies that Earl Granville has conceded the Cameroons territory to Germany or abandoned any of the British claims in that country.

In the German Reichstag on Friday Prince Bismarck declared that there was a good prospect of building up a thriving mining industry at Angra Pequena, and of obtaining a supply of cotton from German producers in the Cameroons and New Guinea colonies. He stated that the negotiations with England regarding the Cameroons territory were making gratifying progress. In concluding his speech Prince Bismarck said that since God's blessing had crowned the policy of Germany for twenty years, and as the Germans had withstood the foe in 1870 as a nation of brothers, a spirit of party strife and confused dissension must not now be allowed to ruin the newly founded empire. This was received with great cheering.

In the election for Member of Parliament at West Gloucestershire, England, on Wednesday, the Tories scored a victory. Mr. Ackers, their candidate, being elected by 411 majority to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Mr. Robert N. F. Kingscote, a Liberal. The Liberal majority five years ago was 876.

Mr. Parnell, in the House of Commons on Monday evening, when the Government called for the vote on the civil-service supply, arrested the vote by demanding that the Government keep their promise to introduce a bill for a triennial redistribution of the Irish constabulary, according to the pledge given the Irish members last August. The Irish leader's guarded announcement took the House by surprise. It was the first authoritative announcement that a bargain had been made by the Government with the Nationalists during the franchise and redistribution contests last summer. The Chief Secretary for Ireland, while denying such an explicit agreement, deferred to Mr. Parnell's wishes, and promised such a bill. Mr. Parnell accepted the explanation as satisfactory.

A motion to grant the family of General Gordon the income of \$100,000 was adopted by the House of Commons on Thursday.

The Gordon Memorial Committee, at a meeting in London on Saturday, the Prince of Wales presiding, decided that the memorial should be a great hospital and sanitarium, to be erected at Port Said and be open to the people of all the nations of the earth. The Khedive has already granted a site for the proposed memorial.

Zebehr Pasha, whom General Gordon trusted and wished to make Governor of the Sudan, has been arrested at Alexandria under charge of combining against the Khedive. Many

documents were found at his residence proving that he is in secret league with El Mahdi. Zebehr's two sons and three other persons were arrested on Sunday at Cairo, and numerous papers were seized at their residences. Nubar Pasha, the Egyptian Prime Minister, refuses to believe in the guilt of either Zebehr or his sons. Zebehr and his two sons were taken to Malta on Monday, on a British despatch boat.

Osman Digna is concentrating a large force at Tamanieb to oppose the advance of General Graham toward Berber. Thousands of well-armed Arabs are gathering to assist Osman Digna. His forces repeatedly attack the British outposts.

It is said that Ollivier Pain, the French Communist and journalist with El Mahdi, has become frightened at the threats of British vengeance for the part he played in the betrayal of Gordon, has escaped from Khartum, and is drifting down the Nile. General Walseley has offered \$250 for Pain's body, dead or alive.

A sensation was caused in Paris on Thursday, in dynamite circles, by the arrest of the Fenians James Stephens, Eugene Davis, John Morrissey, and Mortimer Leroy. Other arrests were made on Friday, and on that day Stephens, Leroy, Davis, and two Anarchists were expelled from France into Belgium.

Admiral Lespès telegraphed on Thursday from Kelung, under date of March 8, that Colonel Duchesne, at the head of 1,300 French troops, began on March 4 an attack on the Chinese who were stationed along the hilly country bordering on the road to Tamsui. He succeeded in driving the Chinese from all these positions and cleared them from the line of the road, inflicting upon them heavy losses, and capturing from them many rifles and flags. The conduct of the French soldiers during this series of difficult engagements is described as admirable.

The Chinese Embassy in London deny that the French troops have occupied the heights of Kelung, as claimed in Paris. The members of the Embassy say that the French, after fighting several days and losing 500 men, succeeded in occupying two positions commanding the road across the island between Kelung and Tamsui, but that the Chinese still hold all the other forts.

War was formally declared on Wednesday by President Barrios, of Guatemala, who desires to unite the five Central American States into a confederacy. On the 5th of March President Barrios declared in the Assembly of that country that Central America should constitute one republic, and at the same time he made public announcement that he would assume the command of all the military forces of the various States. The declaration was accepted by Honduras, but was rejected by San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica. The forces of Guatemala began immediately to march against San Salvador. The people of the latter republic rose as one man to resist the invasion, and on Thursday Guatemala ceased hostilities. President Zaldivar, of San Salvador, appealed to President Diaz, of Mexico, and the latter telegraphed to Barrios as follows: "Your telegram of the 7th instant announcing your determination to declare Central America one republic, and to assume yourself the command of all the forces thereof, has been received. This declaration has been made by your Assembly only, and has been rejected energetically by your sister republics. These circumstances have created such antipathy to your course among Mexican citizens that my Government will be obliged to take immediate action to prevent the execution of your threat against the sister nationalities of this continent." Nicaragua and Costa Rica are preparing to resist Barrios, but it is believed the action of Mexico has prevented any further aggressions by him.

General Fernandez, President of Costa Rica, died suddenly on Friday.

MEMORANDA.

THE *Sun*, in its new rôle of adviser to President Cleveland, points out to him the danger that if he does such things as retain Mr. Pearson in the Post-office, he will please the Independents, while if he does such things as remove him, or rather not reappoint him in order to make way for a good Democrat, he will please the Democrats. In the former case, it is clear, says the *Sun*, "that he can hardly avoid a breach with the Democrats"; and "it is possible that such a breach would be fatal to him and his Administration," inasmuch as he would probably lose his influence with the House of Representatives, and would cause the loss of this State next fall.

To all this we have a ready answer. If it had not been expected by a considerable body of both Democrats and Independents that Mr. Cleveland would do just such things as keep Mr. Pearson in office, he could not have been elected President of the United States last fall. If he fails to do such things now, not only will it be fatal to his Administration, but this will be the last Democratic Administration this country will see for twenty years more. One great reason, we might almost say the greatest, why the Democrats have been excluded from power during the last twenty years, has been the fear of those who hold the balance of power between the two parties, that a Democratic President would do just what the rag-tag and bobtail of the party are now urging President Cleveland to do—that is, deliver over the public service to be the prey of needy adventurers from all parts of the country, who have not succeeded in getting a livelihood out of any calling in which a man has to be fit for his work. It is because the Democrats were able to nominate a man whose conduct in office gave promise of better things, that they have succeeded in getting hold of the Administration. It is for them to say now whether they will have a grand four years' debauch with the offices, and then go out once more into the cold for a whole generation, or carry out the reform which the best men of both parties demand, and to which the Republicans were found unequal, and stay in power indefinitely. If "pleasing the Democrats" means dividing the spoils in the old fashion, it means also the speedy loss of everything to divide. There must be no mistake about this. Any sign of returning to the old ways will bring defeat both in this State next fall and in the Union four years hence. The Republicans will never again nominate a charlatan and jobber, and if they put up an honest and able man, on a civil-service platform, against the candidate of a party fresh from a practical and striking exhibition of its faithlessness and imbecility, we know, and everybody knows, what the result will be. We know where the Independent vote will go; and happily, where this vote goes, as parties are now divided, victory goes also.

At the same time, we have no objection to offer to President Cleveland's plan of filling vacancies, properly made, preferably with Democrats until the public service is divided between the two parties with some degree of fairness. Some such process as this is necessary to redress the monstrous injustice worked by the spoils system during the past twenty-five years, in

regularly excluding from office all who did not belong to the party in power. Nothing like it has ever been seen under a free government, and as long as it exists it is a flagrant abuse, but not one to be remedied at the cost of damage or interruption to the public business.

But we have no fear that the Administration will make any such mistake as "to please the Democrats," in the manner described by the *Sun*. President Cleveland knows very well the situation in which the election placed both him and his party. We do not expect a perfect Administration from him by any means, or an entire absence of mistakes or aberrations; but we do expect that his mistakes and aberrations shall not be conspicuous and deliberate, like President Arthur's dismissal of Colonel Burt, and that his sympathy with the reform of the civil service shall not find expression only in declarations on paper. Moreover, we do not believe that it would "please the Democrats," meaning by this phrase the better and more influential portion of the party, to go back to the old spoils system. We believe that the more thoughtful and intelligent members of the Democratic party, and above all its young men, are, like the same class in the Republican party, thoroughly convinced that this Government has reached a stage in which the conduct of public business by officers appointed after each election as rewards for electioneering activity is as antiquated and absurd as the extinction of fires in great cities by hand-engines and volunteer fire companies would be. There is something preposterous in trying to handle the revenues and execute the laws of a nation of 50,000,000 by such machinery. It is doomed, if not dead, and woe be to the party which deliberately refuses to be the instrument of the change. The Democratic party, which really had from the beginning a firmer grasp of American polity than any other that has arisen in the country, lost its footing in 1860, through failure to see that the country had outgrown the institution of slavery. It has now another chance of heading a forward movement by discarding the spoils system. It may use it or it may not. It may try to rule through office-jobbing or rule through ideas, but nothing is more certain than that the office-jobbing will only last four years. The displeasure of the Democrats at getting nothing now for their votes but the good of their country may be great, but it will be nothing to their displeasure should they be kicked out of everything in 1888.

COLONEL JACQUES AND THE TOWNELEY ESTATE.

ON Friday an amusing despatch to the *New York Times* gave an account of a vast English inheritance, called "the Towneley estate," awarded to American heirs by the Court of Queen's Bench, but showed that the judgment of this tribunal did not transfer the property, for it appeared that the American agent, "Colonel Jacques," who was engaged in prosecuting the claim, had subsequently to bribe "two members of the House of Lords," to procure the passage of an act of Parliament directing the payment of the amounts due into the United States Treasury. The same story, we now observe, has been sent to various other

newspapers, and it would seem as if "Colonel Jacques," if there be such a person, is engaged in a scheme of some kind which merits the attention of the police, and against which all credulous American heirs ought to be put on their guard. The tale appears, as a special despatch, in the following shape in the *Boston Advertiser* of the 11th and 13th inst.:

BUFFALO, N. Y., March 10.—The wife of Deacon Sidney S. Brown, of Gowanda, has brought him good fortune, as she has been acknowledged by the court of Queen's Bench as the heiress to the Lawrence-Towneley estate in England, valued at \$100,000,000, her part being \$40,000,000. Lord Towneley, before the opening of the present century, was the parent of a wilful daughter Mary, who was disowned for engaging herself to John Lawrence, a man of good family, but poor. They came to America, and were married by a Springfield (Mass.) clergyman. Lord Towneley died, and his family was extinct, save the daughter, and for half a century the property was held by law. Colonel James Jacques, at the close of the war, went to Springfield, and there discovered the record of the Towneley-Lawrence marriage. Knowing of the estate in England, he traced the heirs to Gowanda, and there found Mrs. Brown, who was a daughter of Judge Wilder. Colonel Jacques was sent to England, where he obtained a decision that his claim was valid; and last week, by giving two members of the House of Lords an interest, they procured a transfer of the proceeds of the estate to the United States Treasury. Colonel Jacques claims that the money will be transferred within a month or two. He gets one-third for his trouble.

SYRACUSE, N. Y., March 12.—Mrs. Augusta J. Pratt, of this city, widow of the late ex-Attorney-General and Judge Daniel Pratt, has been found to be an undoubted heiress to the Towneley English estate, valued at \$100,000,000, which is also claimed by Mrs. S. S. Brown, of Bagdad, N. Y. Mary Towneley, to whom the estate was left, was Mrs. Pratt's great-grandmother. Mrs. Pratt has heirlooms in silver and pictures, together with documents proving her claim. The other heirs are Mrs. E. Baxter of Oswego, Mrs. Douglass Benson of Erie, Penn., Mrs. Charles Metcalf of Cleveland, Philip and Lawrence Malcolm of Australia, Henry, Evaline, and Mary Dezang of Geneva, Mrs. Clarence Seward of New York, Alice and Eliza Morton of Carthage, Lawrence Dezang's heirs, Mrs. Emma Colton of Brooklyn, and Anna and Charles McCully of Brunswick, Me. Clarence Seward, son of the late Hon. William H. Seward of Auburn, but now of New York, has all the proofs of heirship, and is prosecuting the claim.

Before dealing with this special case, a word or two on the general topic may be seasonable. In the fourth volume of the *Galaxy*, for 1868, an article on "Fortune Hunting" was published, giving some particulars of numerous ridiculous schemes to obtain fortunes left in England by emigrants hither. The examples cited were those in which the dupes had been formed into associations, had collected money and employed agents to go to England, and had issued printed reports. These were the claims of the Houghtons, Gladdings, Willoughbys, Gibsons, Holts, Browns, Churches, etc., in most of which one or two Vermonters appeared as the moving spirits. The great Lawrence-Towneley claim escaped notice, as it was set forth in a formal genealogy, and had probably kept aloof from any greater notoriety. That it is the same old humbug now resurrected can be easily demonstrated.

In July, 1872, the *Buffalo Express* printed a long article, setting forth that one Jasiel Lawrence was a claimant of this Towneley estate of \$500,000,000, and that he had been selling bonds thereon at a very low rate to obtain funds to prosecute the claim. One Corydon Karr had joined forces with him, but a quarrel had arisen as to the accounts, and the fight was transferred to the columns of the

Express. How the quarrel was settled is not recorded, but Mr. Karr did one good thing, in publishing a letter dated in London, June 16, 1872, from the well-known genealogist, H. G. Somerby, stating the plain fact that the Towneley estate in England was in the possession of the legitimate and lawful heirs.

The claim set forth in most absurd language in the genealogy of the Lawrence family (New York, 1858), pp. 120, 124, was (1) that William Towneley, of Towneley, married a Standish, granddaughter of the sixth Duke of Norfolk; (2) that his daughter Mary Towneley married Joseph Lawrence, of New York, son of the emigrant, Thomas Lawrence; (3) that she was the heiress of her father's estate.

A reference to the Lawrence pedigree, in the New York *Genealogical Record*, for July, 1871, brought out a statement in the volume for January, 1872, that the first point above was partly correct, and the third entirely wrong. That is, the marriage of William Towneley, of Towneley, Lancashire, with Cecilia Standish was a fact, but this William was born in 1714 and died in 1741, when his sons Charles and Edward successively enjoyed the estates. At the death of Edward, Towneley reverted to his uncle John, whose grandson is now the owner. All of these facts are accessible in Burke, the family being a distinguished one, and flourishing in the male line.

But the second point was worse, for at that time, 1872, no one had seen any record of the marriage of Joseph Lawrence. His wife was named Mary, but her family name was assumed to be Towneley only in family tradition.

The Lawrence pedigree in general received rather hard usage, and this led to a rejoinder by a gentleman, Mr. W. E. Lawrence, in support of the claims both to a lofty paternal pedigree and to a Towneley descent. The matter was noticed by English students, and in the eighth volume of the *Herald and Genealogist* (London, 1874), Mr. John Gough Nichols published many notes on the Lawrences in general, and (on pp. 177-182) on this Towneley claim in particular. Mr. Nichols pointed out the errors made by Mr. W. E. Lawrence, speaking with authority on English pedigrees. The main prop and support of the alleged Towneley marriage was the fact that Joseph's son Richard had a son born in 1734, named Effingham, and a grandson Effingham, the latter being the father of the W. E. L., who wrote on that side. It was strongly claimed that Lord Francis Howard, Baron Effingham, Governor of Virginia, married Dorothea Towneley, who was sister of the Mary Towneley who married Joseph Lawrence, and hence the family name of Effingham Lawrence. But Mr. Nichols pointed out that no Earl of Effingham married a Towneley, but that the lady married a namesake only; "the bridegroom being not a Howard of Effingham, but a Howard of Corby—branches of the great family, we need scarcely tell even our American friends, far separated from each other."

It is beyond dispute that there is no support given to the Lawrence-Towneley marriage by any Effingham marriage. But there is a very good reason for the family name of Effingham, shown in a very different manner. Elizabeth, widow of William Lawrence,

the emigrant, married secondly Sir Philip Carteret, Governor of New Jersey, and on his death in 1682, thirdly, Colonel Richard Towneley, of that colony. This last-named gentleman was from another branch of the Towneleys, came over to Virginia in the suite of the Earl of Effingham, and named a son Effingham Towneley, in honor, no doubt, of his patron. As Joseph Lawrence had a step-brother, or possibly a half-brother, Effingham Towneley, it is quite natural that some of the next generation adopted the name for a Lawrence child—in honor of a grand-uncle or cousin. But these Towneleys are not of very near kin to the Towneleys of Towneley, and the ridiculous schemers who are after a fortune, are misled entirely by the similarity of names.

Thus far we have written in order to show the true history of the Lawrence and Towneley families, and to suggest the genealogical problem only, which is entitled to fair examination, and which may rightly interest all of the descendants. It has always seemed possible that Colonel Richard Towneley, of New Jersey, may have been married twice, and if so it would be very possible for Joseph Lawrence to have had a step-sister, Mary Towneley, and to have married her. Such marriages were of frequent occurrence in our early history, where a widow rarely remained unwed, and when second and even third marriages brought together broods of young people unallied in blood, under one roof. But this is pure speculation, and if verified, it would lead to no fortune.

In the ridiculous matter now again thrust before the public, it must be remembered that every claim heretofore made for the Lawrence fortune is absurdly wrong. The Towneleys in England are the male representatives of the family, possessing estates handed down for centuries. Every attempt to connect any Lawrence with them has proved to be the result of crass ignorance, exposed at the first reference to any "Peerage" or "Gentry." It will be noticed that the new story now takes a John Lawrence as the happy founder of the greatly to be enriched family. Why this change is made is a mystery, and must lead to unpleasant disputes with Joseph's descendants who have so earnestly beaten the bush. It suggests, indeed, a perpetual hankering of male Lawrences for female Towneleys, coincidences but not identities, and, if substantiated, will lead to a new comedy of errors. The services of Colonel Jacques should be secured by the *Century*, or such of its rivals as desire an enormous circulation. A man who, "at the close of the war," can casually stroll into a minor city in New England, and pick up the record which generations of Lawrences have vainly sought, is a man beyond price. The unrivalled sagacity with which he located the right great-granddaughter in the secluded site of Gowanda, is only to be surpassed by his audacity and decision in giving two members of the House of Lords an interest in the estate. One Lord might have been a fraud, but two, say one to move and the other to second the motion, give the necessary regularity to the "transfer of the estate to the United States Treasury." More than two would be a wrong on the estate; for Colonel Jacques taking one-

third and the Lords say a twelfth each, only one-half remains for the heirs. However, as the French spoliation claims are a proof of the Treasury's methods, it does not matter so much what sum was transferred to the Treasury as how to get it out. We greatly fear that by some error Mrs. Brown's claim as sole heiress, though "acknowledged by the Court of Queen's Bench," will be litigated here. The postscript shows fifteen other heirs, and it may be feared that "Daniel Pratt, the great American traveler," is yet unrecognized in the list.

THE RUMORS OF WAR.

THE news from England continues to be warlike, in spite of the denials of the Government of knowledge of any forward movements on the part of the Russians on the Afghan frontier. The ground taken by the Russian press that the affair is one between the Czar and the Amir, with which England has really nothing to do, and that it is her own and the Afghan frontier, and not that of British India, which Russia is seeking to define, is so evasive that it probably means mischief. The state of the London market as regards both British and Russian funds indicates clearly enough the opinion of the British public that war is imminent. We may indeed expect at any moment to hear of a collision between the Afghan and Russian outposts, for the Afghans are both excitable and ill disciplined, and will probably not bear very long the close pressing to which General Komaroff is subjecting them.

Moreover, the Anglo-Indian Government has long been prepared for this crisis. There has been no difference of opinion for twenty years among men of all parties in England as to the consequences of a Russian occupation of Merv, or as to the necessity of being prepared for them. What has divided the Liberals and Conservatives is the proper mode under these circumstances of treating Afghanistan. It may be said in general terms that, from the disasters of 1841 down to 1874, it had been the settled policy of the Anglo-Indian Government not to meddle in Afghanistan, and to keep on friendly terms with the Amir, whoever he might be, by subsidies and other good offices, and flattery. When Lord Beaconsfield came into power in the latter year, he determined on a bolder and more aggressive line, and Lord Lytton was directed to insist on the presence of an English resident at Kabul, to supervise the Afghan Government, and especially to guard against the growth of Russian influence at the Afghan Court. This was promptly resented as an attempt to reduce Afghanistan to the level of the dependent native princes of India, and we know with what results. Cavagnari, the resident thus forced on the Afghans, was murdered, and there was another bloody war, filling the Afghan population with hatred of the English name, and ending in the downfall of the Beaconsfield Ministry and a complete reversal of their policy.

As soon as Lord Ripon reached India, all attempts to meddle in Afghan affairs were relinquished, and the Amir was subsidized and assured of British friendship. The result has been a considerable restoration of British influence, and the work of concilia-

tion has, of course, been much aided by the presence of Russian troops on the northern frontier. The Afghans in their own country are by no means a contemptible enemy. Backed by a large disciplined force from India, it may safely be said that it will be impossible for Russia to make any impression upon them with any force she can muster on the frontier. The Afghans have probably no affection for the English any more than for the Russians; but a foreign master they will not endure. The English, too, are fortunate in having in India a tried and experienced commander in the person of Sir Frederick Roberts, who conducted the operations in Afghanistan in 1878-9.

The question which probably most influences business men in Europe, however, is, after all, not so much how the fighting will go in India, but how far the war will extend. It is not likely that either Power will make any attempt to confine it to the East. In Europe the belligerents will not come in contact by land. England will probably promptly blockade the Russian ports in the Baltic, and prevent the Russian warships making their way out of the Black Sea in spite of the Turks. There are, indeed, only two ways in which Russia could assail England in the west. One, the despatch of swift cruisers to prey on English commerce, would probably be short-lived, owing to the want of harbors or coaling stations in which the cruisers could refit or take refuge; the other is a fresh attack on Turkish territory in Asia Minor, which the Turks could hardly meet, and against which England has solemnly guaranteed them by treaty in return for Cyprus.

In fact, it is on this side that the prospect of war looks most serious. Should Russia attempt further aggressions on Turkey in Asia, it would almost certainly indicate an understanding of some sort with Germany, and would probably end in the long-threatened advance of Austria to Salonica, the lopping off of Macedonia from the Turkish dominions, and the shutting up of the Sultan in Constantinople, much as Palæologus was shut up by the Sultan's ancestors before the fatal blow was delivered which extinguished the Empire of the East. In any event, the Russians are playing for very high stakes. The Government at home is ill able to bear any reverse in the field, and a humiliating peace under the present Czar might lead to internal commotions which would shake the state to its centre.

TAXING SPECULATION IN GERMANY.

THE evils of speculation in goods and stocks, for the suppression of which the statesmen of this country have deigned from time to time to make proposals of a more or less drastic character, are now being discussed in the German Reichstag, where a bill is pending for the taxation of the objectionable transactions. Speculation, and particularly speculation in stocks, and still more particularly speculation in stocks by Jews, has been one of the bugbears in Germany for some time. The reigning school of economists have pointed to it as the great instance of the bad effects of letting trade and industry alone. The Government, in openly adopting the principle of State interference as the

cure of economic evils, or, to use the current phrase, in adopting the "socio-political" policy, promised to do something to check the evils of speculation. Accordingly they have introduced this bill, which provides for the taxation of what are supposed to be speculative transactions. The tax is to be levied on all sales of stocks or of goods, with certain exceptions, the exceptions including what are supposed to be non-speculative sales. Thus, wherever the articles are not to be resold by the buyer, or are to be used by him as raw material, or have been actually produced by the seller, or are to be actually delivered by the seller to the buyer—in all such cases the law does not apply. Sales outside these exceptions are considered speculative, and are to be taxed at the rate of one mark for every 5,000 marks worth of goods or stocks sold, or 1-50 of 1 per cent. The machinery for collection is to be provided by requiring every merchant and every broker to keep a memorandum-book, in which he shall enter every sale subject to the tax. At the end of each month this book is to be handed in to the authorities, and the amount indicated by it to be due to the Government is to be paid. Where persons who are not dealers or brokers, and do not habitually buy and sell, enter into a taxable transaction, they are to give the authorities special notice of the transaction within a fortnight, and pay their tax accordingly.

It is obvious at first sight that it is useless to expect the honest payment or effective collection of a tax by any process of this kind. Every tax of which the amount is determined by the uncontrolled declaration of the taxable party is objectionable because it puts a premium on fraud and perjury. It taxes the honest and enables the dishonest to escape in whole or in part. Where the taxable object cannot be concealed, as in the case of real property, such a system can be made to work; but it leads to glaring abuses in the degree in which concealment is possible. We have had abundant evidence of this in our experience in taxing personal property. England has had a similar experience in her income tax, and the Prussian income tax stumbles against the same difficulties. That a tax scheme like the proposed German law would give rise to a mass of deceit and false swearing is too clear to need proof. No check or supervision of the tax-books of the parties is possible, and each one would pay as much or as little of the tax as his honesty, public spirit, or fear of punishment directed. The fines for omission to enter sale or for false entries are, as experience shows, quite ineffective to enforce self-taxation. In comparison with these difficulties, the detailed inquisition into every man's business affairs which such a scheme would bring about becomes unimportant; although this in itself is a grave, if not a conclusive, objection. Nevertheless, the indications are that the Government bill will eventually become a law, though very likely with amendments that may remove the more obvious difficulties of the original draft. Prince Bismarck has taken hold of the "socio-political" ideas, and is carrying them through with characteristic energy and pertinacity; and we may expect soon to see some form of tax on speculation added to the protective tariff, the laborers' insurance law,

and the other restrictive measures now in vogue among the Germans.

The idea underlying this scheme of taxation is confessedly that in speculative transactions you have an objectionable thing, which you cannot entirely suppress, or do not want to suppress, but which, being objectionable, you may as well subject to tribute. The same idea underlies Government lotteries, which still exist in some countries of Europe, and are used to enable the Government to get revenue from the gaming propensities of its subjects. Essentially the same principle is at the bottom of the taxation of intoxicating liquors, which is universal in civilized countries. But in regard to speculation, it is by no means clear that you have in fact such an objectionable object for your tax. The precise economic effect of what are called speculative transactions is anything but clear. The line between legitimate mercantile business, which is admitted to perform as useful an economic function as digging potatoes or carrying freight, and speculative dealings, which are to be looked on as pure gambling, and as an unproductive employment of brains and labor, is exceedingly difficult to draw. Every branch of trade includes elements of risk and uncertainty, and in so far partakes of the nature of speculation. On the other hand, a multitude of transactions, such as those in grain and provisions, which are commonly considered purely speculative, effect something beneficial to the community at large. They help to accommodate supply to demand, and to prevent excessive fluctuations and inequalities of prices.

Mr. J. S. Mill, in his 'Political Economy,' went so far as to say that speculation could not possibly be harmful to the community; for, in so far as it failed to effect a correct adjustment of demand and supply, it inevitably resulted in a loss merely to the speculators themselves, but not to any one else. Whether this proposition is or is not true without qualification, it undoubtedly points to an important truth—that there is a normal and useful function performed by a multitude of so-called speculative dealings, and that these are no more objectionable, and no more deserving of being specially singled out for punishment by tax, than a hundred other kinds of industrial activity. Doubtless there is, on the other hand, much speculation which is exactly like playing at cards or at dice, and which the Government need not hesitate to suppress or tax, if it can. But the question remains whether it can; whether there is any way of distinguishing that which serves to effect a useful object from that which is entirely useless; and whether we are not reduced, as in the case of so many industrial phenomena of our time, to taking the evil as the inevitable accompaniment of the good. As a matter of principle, it is almost impossible to distinguish between "legitimate" trading and pure gambling in the guise of corners and futures. To get some external indication of the distinction, such as is necessary for fastening a tax on the gambling transaction, is quite impossible. The present German plan certainly fails to find any such external indication, and would tax much that was economically good, as well as, perhaps, something that was useless and bad.

THE VOTE OF CENSURE AND ITS RESULTS.

LONDON, March 3, 1885.

THE fortunes of Mr. Gladstone's Government during the last three years may be compared to those of a steamer making a December passage across the Atlantic. A succession of gales have caught the ship, now from one quarter, now from another—gales which it needed fine seamanship to ride out—and one has scarcely passed off before another more violent has risen. The latest has been the most severe. It has so knocked the ship about that many observers doubt whether the next squall will not send her to the bottom; and of more squalls there is every prospect. Our position is, indeed, as your readers must have already observed, an anxious one, replete with difficulties at home as well as abroad.

The debate which closed on February 27th, after having occupied four nights, was not marked by any brilliant rhetorical displays in either house, if we except Lord Salisbury's unusually telling speech in the Lords. Mr. Gladstone, who spoke first for the Government, was, or seemed, wearied and depressed, unable to breathe much heartiness into his followers. Lord Hartington, who wound up the Ministerial defence, had the air of a man only half believing in his cause, and spoke with a constraint which told upon his audience. The chief interest of the discussion consisted in the efforts which the Government made to conciliate the two mutually hostile sections of their own party. About one-third of the Liberals, consisting of what may be called the Radical wing, disapproves of any further prosecution of the war in Sudan, condemns the projected movement on Khartum, condemns the making of a railway from Suakim to Berber, and wishes the British troops to be forthwith withdrawn to the sea or the frontiers of Egypt proper. Another third, the so-called Whig section, desires not only the overthrow of the Mahdi, but the establishment of some stable government at Khartum. The other third, standing between these two extremes, is willing to be guided by events, and to let the Government carry out its scheme for an advance to be followed by a retreat. But as this section contented itself by giving a silent vote, and saying little or nothing in support of the Cabinet, the strange spectacle was witnessed of a Ministry left alone to defend its policy, the bulk of its own supporters distrusting it, and the final vote going in its favor only because the two extreme sections balanced one another, while all hated or feared the Tory Opposition more than they condemned their own leaders.

Two conspicuous members of the Liberal party were, however, found to overcome this sentiment. Mr. Goschen and Mr. Forster voted with Sir S. Northcote against the Government—not, of course, with any intention of allying themselves with the Tories, but by way of condemning the past mismanagement of the Cabinet, and of protesting against the meagre and unsatisfactory declarations of its policy which, as they thought, the Cabinet now made. Such a defection would generally bring much censure on those who committed it; but the circumstances are so exceptional that the Liberals in Parliament have not experienced much displeasure, although many of the provincial newspapers are indignant, and Mr. Forster's constituents at Bradford threaten to withdraw their support from him.

Even more significant than that revolt, or the indulgence extended to it, has been the apathy of the Ministerial party generally. One can hardly believe that it is the same party which, less than five years ago, came to Westminster full of triumph and hopefulness, burning with enthusi-

asm for Mr. Gladstone, and prepared to carry that long string of Liberal measures which he had put up before the country—the party which used to give him majorities exceeding 100, and so late as last November supported his Franchise Bill against the House of Lords by a majority of 140. The causes of the change are not wholly to be sought in the recent blunders of the Government in its foreign and colonial policy, in the regret at Gordon's death, in the anxiety now felt with regard to the Sudan campaign. They are also due to the condition of domestic politics. A Liberal government must in England maintain itself by a positive programme, by holding before the people measures of reform which excite their interest and dispose them to make efforts on its behalf. Without such prizes glittering before them, popular enthusiasm languishes. At present the Ministry have none such to offer. They are pledged to large measures, such as the creation of a new system of local government in the counties and in London; but these measures, profoundly important as they are, do not fascinate the popular mind. It was fixed on the extension of the franchise, and, having secured that bill, feels as if the chief work of the Ministry was done. The abolition of the House of Lords would stimulate it afresh, but the Ministry decline to commit themselves upon that subject, while the hopes held out by Mr. Chamberlain of legislation in favor of the poor by throwing more of the weight of taxation on the rich, and by establishing peasant proprietors over England, are merely his individual proposals, and, in attracting the more extreme Radicals, have alarmed the less advanced sections of the party. It may be thought that personal loyalty and gratitude to Mr. Gladstone ought to come in to fill up the void left by striking out of the Liberal platform the now accomplished extension of the suffrage, and all but accomplished redistribution of seats. This loyalty is still strong, and would display itself fervently in a general election, or if Mr. Gladstone's retirement into private life were to be announced, as any day it may be. But it is no longer an aggressive feeling. Mr. Gladstone's sun is just touching the western horizon, and everybody feels that he will take up no fresh question, that no more Parliamentary battles can be won under his standard. It is with regretful sympathy that he is now thought of; and the change of sentiment is perhaps best evidenced by the language of the Tories, who have mostly desisted from their old virulence.

Something must also be set down to the near approach of a general election. Possibly in July or October, certainly not later than January next, a new Parliament will be chosen by new electors in new constituencies. No one can guess what this Parliament will be like, and it seems idle for the present expiring body to busy itself with measures which its successor may repeal, or may, perhaps, go far beyond. The centre of interest has been transferred from the House of Commons to the constituencies. Those members who hope to be returned at the next election are occupied in cultivating their constituencies, whose limits are in most cases altered by the redistribution scheme. Those who mean to retire from Parliament have ceased to care for its proceedings. Thus the House of Commons has become flaccid and lifeless; it now seeks only to dispose of necessary business and make way for its successor.

Among the Ministerial majority of fourteen in the recent division, and, indeed, among Ministers themselves, there were some who wished for defeat, holding that the best thing for the Liberal party would be to go out of office, leaving the difficulties of the situation to be faced by the Tories, and letting the latter have some months of power before the general election in which to ef-

face, by blunders of their own, the recollection of Ministerial faults. So patent were the advantages of this course that the Tories themselves seemed to shrink from victory, and were apparently relieved when they found that they had seriously damaged the Government, yet remained free from the responsibilities of taking their places. They have now abundant materials for denouncing the Government at every election platform, whereas, had they turned Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet out, it would seem to have been already punished, while their policy would, in its turn, have become the target for invective. If they are well advised, they will adhere to this prudent course till the end of the session. But they may not be able to do so. A Government which has once lost its hold on opinion is in hourly danger. Votes have to be taken for the expenses of the new expedition to Suakim and the construction of the railway—votes which the Radicals may find it hard to support. Their sudden defection might leave the Ministers in a minority, were the Tories to deliver an attack upon such an issue.

The moment is an inopportune one for changing the Executive, for our affairs are in a critical, if not a dangerous, condition in more places than the Sudan. The proximity of the Russian and Afghan troops north of Herat, where our Commissioner has gone to settle the disputed boundaries in conjunction with a Russian officer, who has not yet appeared, might bring on at any moment a conflict in which we, as protectors of the Afghans, might become involved. At the other end of our Asiatic domains France is suspected of intriguing with the King of Burmah against us, and the disorders of independent Burmah have reached a point at which British intervention would be sure to occur, were not our hands already full elsewhere. How unsatisfactory our relations with Germany are, all the world knows, for Bismarck's speeches, as well as our and his Blue Books, are disclosing a series of controversies between the Governments which may further embitter the feelings of both peoples. There is, of course, nothing approaching a *casus belli*, nor any reason to think that Germany any more than England desires a breach; but in view of the difficulties which Egypt presents, the alienation of Germany is a material feature of the situation. The moment is eminently one in which a strong Government, able to inspire the country with confidence in its strength, is called for, but, unluckily, that is the last thing we are likely to get, for a Tory Ministry, if it came in, could not command, and would not on a general election obtain, a majority, but would probably be even weaker than Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet has now become.

Y.

A PIEDMONTESE FAMILY.

PARIS, February 26, 1885.

THE Marquis d'Azeglio, who was for many years Italian Minister in London, published not long ago the letters which he received from his mother between 1835 and 1861, with some from his father. These letters are, so to speak, the journal of the memorable years during which Italian unity was prepared and nearly achieved. The mother of the present Marquis was Constance Alfieri. She was the eldest daughter of Emmanuele Alfieri di Sostegno, and the sister of Cesare Alfieri. She was born in 1798, and married in 1815 Azeglio, who was then a cavalry officer, and who was aide-de-camp to Prince Carignano in 1821. When the movement of 1821, which was the first explosion of the Italian opposition to Austria, began, Prince Carignano, who afterward became Charles Albert, was obliged to leave Piedmont, as were some of his friends, La Cisterna, Collegno, Lisis. Azeglio was

summoned to leave Turin, and remained a little while in France, where his father was Ambassador. "My parents," says Azeglio, "could not have been better situated for information. They lived habitually, after their return to Piedmont, with the most influential persons, such as Massimo d'Azeglio, Cesare Alfieri, Lisio, Cesare Balbo; afterward with Alfonso di Lamarmora, Camillo Cavour, Villamarina, Giacinto Collegno, all more or less related to us; and finally, with such men as Sclopis, Santa Rosa, Provana, Menabrea, Cibrario, Franzini, who took such an active part in the political life of Piedmont."

Piedmont was the cradle of liberty of Italy. It had a national dynasty; an old nobility, accustomed to arms; a strong and brave people. "Il forte Piemonte" is the epithet still used for this little province, which kept the keys of the Alps. The Piedmontese mothers played a great part in the Liberal movement; they prepared their children by a manly education for a life of devotion and of sacrifice. Massimo d'Azeglio has told in his 'Ricordi' the story of the captivity of Cesare d'Azeglio in France. The Marquis Alfieri, maternal great-uncle of Emmanuel d'Azeglio, was taken as hostage to Dijon by the French armies, during the Revolution. His beautiful wife, Charlotte Duchi, lost her brother and her brother-in-law, Joseph Alfieri, in a battle fought against the French near Nice. Every family in Turin could tell the same story. The military traditions of the Piedmontese nobility were the seed of Italian liberty and unity. While all the courts of Parma, Modena, Florence, Naples were ever mere centres of pleasure, of dissipation, of artistic refinement, the little court of Turin, under the veil of a stern etiquette, the most severe perhaps that could be found in all Europe, preserved the ambitions and the aspirations of Italian patriotism.

In 1842 Azeglio was at the Hague. His mother kept him informed of all the little news of Turin: "The King has signed an *indulto* for the last of the men of '21 [the persons who had taken part in the movement of 1821], so that all is now ended on this point. Everybody was asking for this measure. . . . The King seemed very well satisfied and appeared younger." Among the persons who were amnestied was Count Lisio, and she writes: "Lisio was received on Thursday last by His Majesty most graciously, and four times kissed." When the news of the death of the Duc d'Orléans reached Turin, "Our Queen Maria Christina was so affected by it that she fainted. She said that of all the children of her sister those whom she loved most was this Duke, whose birth she had witnessed, and Princess Mary [who was afterward married to a Bavarian prince]. You see that there are still chords which vibrate in the heart of our poor Queen, though she is morally and physically a wreck."

In a visit made to Milan, whither she had gone to see her brother-in-law Massimo (who was living with his second wife on the Lake of Como), Constance d'Azeglio met Confalonieri: "I have had the pleasure of making the acquaintance of Confalonieri, who often comes to see Massimo. It is the salient feature of my journey. I have found in him, as in Silvio Pellico, a mildness and affectionateness of manner which are very attractive. He is a fine character. To bear with firmness such a prolonged misfortune, with no prospect of escaping from it except by death, to bear the misfortunes of their own families, without ever changing, when, by a capitulation of conscience, they could make themselves free—surely, such men do honor to our time, whether they have understood it or not; and I feel in their presence a veneration for their character. . . . It is an offset to so much smallness, baseness, and misery which come under our eyes." Was not this strong and healthy language from a mother

to a young man living in courts and surrounded with conventionalities?

In 1846 Massimo d'Azeglio published in Tuscany a pamphlet, 'Degli ultimi casi di Romagna,' in which he criticised the Papal Government. The author was ordered to leave Tuscany, but 2,000 copies had already been sold in Florence. The father of Azeglio sent a copy to his son, who was at the time in Brussels, and wrote: "It is impossible not to be struck with the injustice and the cruelty of the Government in the Romagna; it is the worst and least enlightened of governments."

. . . Italy is in a state of uneasiness which announces great events. One waits for an opportunity, so as not to act partially and therefore uselessly. From time to time, however, there are small explosions, caused by an impatience which cannot contain itself."

Charles Albert, surrounded by Austrian influences, felt like his people; he was waiting for his opportunity. The smallest word which fell from his lips having a liberal and national tinge, had an immense echo. The Papal States were greatly agitated during the election of a new Pope. There is a good anecdote of Madam d'Azeglio's: "Before," she says, "the Cardinals were in conclave, Lambruschini went to see Miccra, who was ill, to sound him and find out to whom he would give his vote. After a few vague phrases on the issue of the event, Miccra answered: 'Se lo Spirito Santo c'entrà sarà Mastai [who became Pio Nono]; ma se il diavolo ci mette la coda sarete voi od io.'" (If the Holy Ghost enters in, it will be Mastai; if the devil gets his tail in, it will be you or I.)

The new Pope was for a moment looked upon as the liberator of Italy. Massimo d'Azeglio believed in him and took office under him. In all the Italian cities there was a great fermentation, and Pio Nono was hailed as a saviour. Charles Albert, encouraged by these movements, made some reforms in his Government, and he received great ovations in Turin and in Genoa. The letters of 1848-1849 are of the highest interest; they are the echo of Piedmontese opinion during the eventful years which saw the popular movements in all parts of Italy—the concession of the *Statuto* by Charles Albert, the war against Italy after the five terrible days of the revolution in Milan, the fatal battle of Novara, and the defeat of Charles Albert.

It is easy to imagine what were during this time the feelings of a noble and patriotic woman. Madam d'Azeglio, though she belonged to the highest nobility, always shared the feelings of the Italian people: she never became the slave of the Austrian party. She tells her son, one day, at the beginning of the popular agitation, how a procession passed before their house, shouting: "Viva la case Zei! [Zei is the popular abbreviation of Azeglio], viva Robertod'Azeglio! viva il padre del popolo!" . . . Surprise is felt among a certain class that your father should espouse the feelings of the people. It is because they don't know the people, and are ignorant what strong devotion it feels for the country. One is surprised to hear these patriots speak, not academically, but with warmth and good sense, and, when your father speaks, one often sees their beards and moustaches wet with tears, and he likes this emotion more than what he finds elsewhere. Our folks who keep themselves as much as they can out of what is going on, can have no clear ideas of what is outside of the little circle in which they live."

It is quite true that there were many *Codini* in all the great Italian centres, but, fortunately for Italy, the cause of independence was espoused from the beginning by the best families in Turin, in Milan, and in Venice. A party which had in its ranks the Azeglios and the Cavour could not be looked upon as a revolutionary party: it was

constructive as well as destructive. It was directed against a foreign tyranny; it was not directed against the fundamental laws of society. It enlisted rank, beauty, virtue, literary genius, parliamentary eloquence. In its first trial, however, it was vanquished. Charles Albert was old; he was older than his years, very ill, incapable of conducting a campaign against Radetzky. The Piedmontese army was ill-led and sacrificed. Novara seemed for a moment to be the end of all hope; but the Italian blood had not been shed in vain. Italy had proved that she could rise and fight. She meant to become free by her own efforts: "L'Italia farà da se." Her statesmen understood that, in her misery, she must find allies, and they did in the end find France.

During this eventful period Azeglio had been transferred from St. Petersburg to London, where he became full Minister, and in the most difficult times. The letters of his mother must have been to him even more interesting than the official despatches: she gave him not only the events, the color of the events—not only what could be said, but what could not be said—she gave him, what was better still, an indomitable hope, a lofty view of his mission and of his duty. Every detail in her letters shows her to have been mild, rather retiring, domestic; she was a real "Roman mother."

The correspondence goes as far as the year 1861, to the death of Count Cavour, the catastrophe which ended the first period of the constitution of Italian independence. The Azeglios were true Piedmontese, Italians of the North; they dreaded somewhat the result of the fusion of the kingdom of the two Sicilies with the kingdom which had transported its capital to Florence. They were afraid of the republican element. But they had the utmost confidence in the genius of Cavour, and they followed him through thick and thin, even when they did not always know how far they might be led. The Marquis d'Azeglio lived in London in the intimacy of Lord Palmerston and his family; and there are some very important letters which show how Lord Palmerston espoused the cause of Italy, and to what extent he was determined to support the Piedmontese Government, after the peace of Villafranca, during the movement for annexation which gave so much trouble to the French diplomacy of the time. Madam d'Azeglio, the mother of the present Marquis, died in April, 1862, and her husband only outlived her by a few months.

Correspondence.

A CASE IN POINT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The stars in their courses fight for executive responsibility. The incident of March 9 in the Senate throws a light upon it which might not be obtained in years of outside discussion. Mr. Teller, who had a week before been Secretary of the Interior, had taken his place as a Senator, and Mr. Van Wyck undertook to call him to account for his conduct as Secretary. His reply is of double interest, first as to principle and second as to details. He is reported to have said:

"The head of a department had, however, no seat upon the floor, and was compelled to submit to whatever might be said, without any opportunity to reply. When unfair criticisms were made upon his conduct, he must submit in silence. When falsehoods were uttered in this body or the other with reference to his course, it was undignified for the head of a department to question them. If he should go to the public prints and deny the charges that were made, it

would be said that he forgot his relations to the legislative branch of the Government. He must submit in silence to the most atrocious slanders, uttered in the shape of resolutions or uttered by Senators or members, without reply. He did not believe the Senate was aware of the insults that had been offered, from time to time, to the executive branch by way of resolutions. Such resolutions were not introduced for information, but for the express purpose of making an attack in the cowardly way of skulking behind charges; and they were seized upon by enemies of the Administration, and the newspapers were in the habit of making a great deal of them. He described instances in which a vast amount of labor had been put upon the departments by resolutions, when the information could all have been had in an hour had the seeker called personally or sent a letter of inquiry."

I believe there has not been a Cabinet officer in the last ten years who could not endorse this statement, and testify how he has writhed under charges which he had no opportunity to answer, and that the liability to them was fatal to efficiency and independence. But Mr. Teller's remarks on the particular matter in hand were even more instructive. Mr. Van Wyck uttered a violent tirade against the Administration for issuing patents of land to a railroad just before it went out of office; and if the matter had rested there, the impression left on the country would have been just that described by Mr. Teller as above. This time, however, the assailant did not have the whole field to himself. Mr. Teller showed pretty clearly that the fault was with Congress and not the Executive; that, as the law stood, he was bound to issue the patents unless Congress forbade it; that while he was waiting and waiting, the House, by a majority of 42, declared that the lands should not be forfeited; that he still waited and waited for action by the Senate, but none was taken, and that he finally, just before leaving office, issued the patents, as he was bound to do.

Now, this discussion took place when the Secretary was no longer Secretary. It referred to things already past and matters of history, and therefore of little practical interest. Suppose the same kind of discussion took place between Senators or members and the actual Secretaries as to policies or questions open for settlement, and that charges and inquiries could be made and met *vice versa*, and before the whole country. Could anything do more to excite national interest, to enforce responsibility on one side or the other, to force action on important matters, and, perhaps most important of all, to bring out individual character and ability in strong light? And why should not this take place? Why should not the process begin within a week after the assembling of Congress at the next session? For the same reason that we cannot stop the coining of silver—because it does not suit the purposes of the lobby. The theory is, that this country is governed by the people through their representatives in Congress. The fact is, that it is governed by the lobby through Congress, largely in defiance of the people. The struggle can be settled in the only way in which factions have always been put down—by popular support of the Executive in its efforts to exercise control.

If Secretary Teller will persevere in the path which he has thus struck out, he will have done more for his country than it would have been possible for him to do in office, and this with certainly no detriment to his own reputation.

G. B.

BOSTON, March 11, 1885.

BOHN'S TRANSLATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you have lately published several letters criticising unfavorably the translations in Bohn's Libraries, we trust that you will allow us to say a few words in reply. If, as your corre-

spondent, "A Lover of Trustworthy Work" (a designation to which, by the way, we lay claim equally with himself) allows, some of the translations are "excellent," we fail to see that it is desirable that "proof after proof should be given" that they are, in general, not faithful. This course would be eminently unjust to the meritorious translators; and if any judgment is to be pronounced in this public fashion, nothing less than an accurate discrimination between the good and the bad will satisfy the claims of justice. As it is, his "proofs" are not so very conclusive, for one of them, at least, is an obvious, though a misleading printer's blunder. But we are not concerned to deny that there are errors in the particular book referred to, as we have heard of several before, and have corrected them. We grant that, as a matter of fact, there is great variety in the quality of all the translations; but we must protest against a whole series being condemned *en bloc* because, while some are admittedly excellent, others may be found to have an undue amount of errors. Between the two extremes are a number of books which embody a vast amount of painstaking work, and approximate in a very laudable degree to the absolute fidelity which we are perfectly certain that no translation ever yet attained. Both Carlyle and Emerson have expressly testified to the utility of these translations, and of one volume, at least, Matthew Arnold, on whose opinion your correspondent appears to rely, has spoken in the highest terms.

The translations in Bohn's Classical Library are probably more widely known than any others. American publishers have shown their appreciation by reprinting most of them. Of these, Kennedy's Demosthenes has among scholars the highest reputation. The translations of Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius by the late Professor Long, of Æschylus by Miss Swanwick, and of Plutarch's 'Essays' by Mr. King, were all executed as "labors of love," and in England, at any rate, are highly esteemed. Of the rank and file, so to speak, the chief fault is not so much looseness of rendering as an excess of literalness, inasmuch as they adhere somewhat baldly to the forms of expression of the original, and err, in fact, by want of freedom. Whether readers who use them in place of, and not in connection with, the Latin and Greek texts, are aggrieved at this, we cannot say; but at least it seems to be a fault on the right side.

In the translations from modern languages there is a similar variety: Goethe's Autobiography and the first part of the 'Tour in Italy' had more faults of the careless sort than the others. The former was partly printed by Mr. Bohn from an American edition, revised; but the number of errors found in it was so great that the editor, Mr. John Oxenford, had to relinquish the proposed substructure and complete the work independently. These books have recently been reprinted in America, but the reprints do not contain the great improvements which have been and are continually being made in our editions.

Your later correspondent, "E. H. H.," is not happy in his selection of Miss Swanwick's metrical translation of Schiller's 'Die Jungfrau von Orléans' for his rather trivial criticism. As the author of the Bohn translation of 'Faust,' which is frequently ranked with Bayard Taylor's, and as a well-known Greek scholar, Miss Swanwick, if not "super grammaticam," can at least let her reputation take care of itself. In our view, the defects referred to only prove our position, that no translation is perfect; and if Miss Swanwick's work is a test of the demerits of Bohn, we can very well afford to say no more about the matter. This only we will add, that if your correspondents, instead of communicating their general disapproval to you, will send a definite note

of any errors to us, they will do us a kindness instead of an injury, and at the same time help more effectually to remedy the occasional faults which we, no less than they, deplore.—We are, sir, your obedient servants,

THE PUBLISHERS OF BOHN'S LIBRARIES.

YORK STREET, COVENT GARDEN, LONDON,
March 7, 1885.

A DECEPTIVE VOLUME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for July 13, 1882, and July 12 and 19, 1883, your Paris correspondent noticed two volumes entitled 'La Jeunesse de Madame d'Épinay' and 'Les Dernières Années de Madame d'Épinay.' It is somewhat surprising that both he and other critics of these works seem not to have been fully aware of their real character; at least their quality has not, I think, been distinctly expressed and duly emphasized. In view of this oversight on the part of the reviewers, I venture to ask for one of your valuable pages to present evidence that these works are not what they appear to be. To do this clearly I must first state a few well-known facts.

In the notice given of Mme. d'Épinay at the time of her death by Grimm (her intimate friend) in his 'Correspondance Littéraire,' he says: "She has left no other work save a continuation of the 'Conversations d'Émilie,' a number of letters, and the rough draft of a long romance." This romance was the story of her own life, little disguised except by the alteration of names and of a few facts. It was left in the hands of Grimm, but was not published by him. On quitting France he intrusted it to M. Lacourt de Villière, and it remained unknown till 1818, when it passed from the heirs of this gentleman into the possession of an able publisher, M. Brunet, who perceived its value—value so exceptional that Sainte-Beuve declared, "The Memoirs of Mme. d'Épinay are not a work, they are an epoch." M. Brunet, aided by M. Parison, discovered with certainty most of the real names of the characters, suppressed (avowedly) unimportant passages, and gave the world, under the title 'Mémoires et Correspondance de Madame d'Épinay,' three most interesting volumes, whose authenticity is as unquestionable as that of the 'Confessions' of Rousseau.

The persons with whom we have now to deal are known as M. Lucien Perrey and M. Gaston Maugras. But "M. Perrey" is *Mlle. Herpin*; and I think that in that fact may perhaps be found an explanation of some of the qualities of the work before us. If I add that I refer to qualities of inaccuracy approaching untruthfulness, let it not be thought an imputation on all women. These editors offer us their volumes as containing "une foule de renseignements" discovered by themselves among family papers intrusted to them by the descendants of Mme. d'Épinay, but more especially as being unedited matter belonging to the 'Mémoires'; they having found in the Public Archives thirty *cahiers* of the manuscript of the 'Mémoires,' suppressed by the former editors—being precisely the first quarter—and afterward thirty more unedited *cahiers* in the Library of the Arsenal, being precisely the last quarter of the 'Mémoires.' I will leave this statement of theirs without comment, only reminding the reader of the titles of the two volumes we are examining, and mention a few facts which still less need comment.

The first 150 pages of 'La Jeunesse' are occupied with "new" matter: when it catches up with the opening of the 1818 volumes (which begin with the marriage of the heroine) we find a letter to which this note is attached: "This letter is partly given in Brunet and Parison's edition of the 'Mémoires.' We publish only the unedited

passages." The letter is two pages and a half long; one page and a half (in broken portions) is precisely the same in one edition as the other, one page is added, half a page is omitted.

On page 376 there is a letter with a note referring as before to the Brunet edition, adding: "We have restored [rétabli] the suppressed passages." The letter as here given does not contain one word which is not in the Brunet edition; and of the portion from which the Perey and Maugras passages are taken (a portion only one-quarter of the whole letter as given by Brunet and Parison) only two pages are given out of five. If this incongruity of statement and fact be nothing more than carelessness, it is to me inexplicable carelessness.

On page 314 thirty-two lines of a letter of fourteen pages in Brunet and Parison are spoken of here as if they were the whole letter; of these thirty-two lines, "rectifiées d'après le texte original," three, and three only, are not in the earlier edition: the rest is a verbatim copy.

On page 355, a passage two and a half pages long is said by Perey and Maugras to have been previously given "only incompletely"; the incompleteness consists in the omission of five absolutely unimportant lines.

MM. Perey and Maugras nowhere accuse MM. Brunet and Parison of having changed the text (except by suppressions) save that they make use once in the Introduction to their first volume, incidentally, of the phrase "passages importants . . . tronqués ou altérés"; they nowhere confess to having done so themselves, and they nowhere refer to discrepancies between the two texts. But discrepancies abound. The most important exist in passages too long for quotation here; but a tolerably typical illustration may be given with these few lines (curiously enough, it falls on precisely the same page of the same volume in both works, I, 355): "Quoique la vie que je mène soit assez uniforme, j'espère n'être pas obligée d'en changer" (Brunet and Parison). "Je n'ai pas grand'chose à vous dire de la vie que je mène, elle est trop uniforme et vous la connaissez; j'espère n'être pas obligée d'en changer" (Perey and Maugras). One or the other has been rewritten.

Again, we find (in Perey and Maugras, in the Journal, these sentences: "J'ai dîné deux fois chez Mlle. Quinault. J'y ai vu beaucoup Duclos" — which have a singular air of unreality to the reader who remembers (in Brunet and Parison) two passages in the Journal at a considerable distance from one another (unfortunately there are no dates in either edition), one seventeen and the other fourteen pages of brilliant description of these two dinners, with the details of, as Sainte-Beuve says, "les inimaginables orgies de conversation qui s'y passent entre beaux esprits," of whom Duclos is one of the most conspicuous.

On page 265 a passage which in the earlier editions is given as from the Journal, in the later becomes a letter to Francueil: "Nous avons fait aujourd'hui une promenade délicieuse à laquelle il ne manquait que la présence de mon tendre ami pour," etc. "Nous avons fait aujourd'hui une promenade délicieuse, mon tendre ami, à laquelle il ne manquait que ta présence pour," etc. A sentence or two afterward, speaking of Rousseau, "J'ai encore l'âme attendrie de la manière simple et originale en même temps dont il raconte ses malheurs" (Brunet and Parison). "Et la simplicité avec laquelle Rousseau conte ses malheurs! J'en ai encore l'âme attendrie" (Perey and Maugras).

On page 430 a passage is given as being a letter from Grimm to Mme. d'Épinay which is really (if the earlier edition is trusted) a conversation reported by her in her Journal.

On page 484 a note from Grimm to Mme.

d'Épinay is in the "vous" form in the earlier, in the "tu" in the later.

On page 270 there is a letter, with the usual form of note, to the effect that it is incomplete in former editions, and "we give only the omitted portions." Out of its five pages only about two pages are new; the rest is verbatim from the Brunet and Parison edition, with the change of a word here and there, but absolutely rewritten, so as to allow the introduction of two long passages concerning a personage entirely absent from the letter in its earlier form, and to whom is here addressed a conversation in place of one formerly addressed to Mme. d'Épinay. For a similar complete "incompatibility" compare the letter on page 277 with what I must call "the original," and let it be remembered that this incompatibility MM. Perey and Maugras never, in any way, indicate or comment on.

We come now to a correspondence between Mme. d'Épinay and Rousseau, to which this note is prefixed: "These letters have been published in part in the 'Mémoires.' We restore the text entirely, and give them in their chronological order, which was completely changed in the printed 'Mémoires'; this mistake (défaut) made them almost unintelligible." We will examine these five letters as they are here given.

1st Letter. Half a page omitted. Half a page which is, in Brunet and Parison, separated by another letter, is added. *Nothing new.*

2d. Unchanged in position. Nine lines omitted. *Nothing new.*

3d. Unchanged in position. *Nothing new.*

4th. The omitted half page of No. 1. Twelve new lines. In conclusion, eight lines which have no connection with the rest, which are given as a little note by itself in the 'Mémoires' just before these present letters, and which is referred to in the 'Confessions' not at all as if it were part of a long letter.

5th. The 2d in the 'Mémoires.' One page and a half omitted. *Nothing new.*

It therefore results that in eight pages there are precisely twelve new lines in place of forty-four omitted (from those said to be printed "in part"); and I am ready to assert that the "intelligibility" of the earlier arrangement is quite as great as the later.

The chapter concerning the rupture between Rousseau and Mme. d'Épinay is acknowledged to be of already published material, but the letters are said to be "rectifiées." They are rectified in the same manner as the others.

It is needless to give more of the countless instances similar to these to be found *passim*.

The contents of the first volume, on being somewhat carefully "analyzed" by me, gives these results: 150 pages relating to an earlier period than the previously published 'Mémoires,' and which therefore cannot be tested by them; 40 pages in the Rousseau chapter, avowedly old material; 40 pages (about) of more or less accurate, entertaining broken résumé of the 'Mémoires,' with no references; 28 pages in different places, identical with Brunet and Parison, of which (in spite of the statement in the Introduction, "Every time we reproduce a letter or a passage already published we indicate it in a note") just about one-half, that is, 14 pages, broken up in a large number of passages, are entirely unacknowledged, and the other half very inadequately acknowledged; 2 pages openly acknowledged as to be found in Brunet and Parison; 270 pages of padding of, for the most part, uninteresting material.

These remarks are all on 'La Jeunesse,' etc., but I am convinced (though from a less thorough examination) that 'Les Dernières Années,' etc., are—by the same authors; and I am sure that both volumes are of very little value to

A LOVER OF TRUSTWORTHY WORK.

THE NEGRO PROBLEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Touching the negro's future there is little to be said, because we are none of us prophets, and the question relates to the future. The education of the negro is bound to be a slow process, because his mind is essentially sluggish. In saying this I would not be understood to mean any disrespect to him. It is precisely what one must say of any race which a few generations back were savages and barbarians. A couple of thousand years of breeding, more or less good, and several hundred years of intellectual stimulation, have made of the white man what he is. It accounts for all the difference between the white savage and the present leader of the world's thought and progress. It is manifestly unfair to the negro to require or expect of him that he align himself with intellectual forces which have been gathering strength for more than a thousand years. The law of heredity is too real and obstinate to be set aside in favor of any race of creatures, be they men or beasts. Even these last require many generations, under careful selection, either natural or otherwise, to show any marked improvement.

On the fingers of one hand may be counted the generations since the negro was a savage. The legal slave trade ceased in 1808, though an unlawful traffic continued for many years thereafter. Now one measures to him hard lines who requires of him a force whose evolution demands a hundred generations, and that under a stimulation which the negro has not had for even his five or six. We are not to expect too much of "our brother in black," but we ought not to be satisfied with too little. In any study of the negro problem we are likely, in my judgment, to go wrong if we be forgetful of the history of other races who have travelled the road to civilization ahead of him. A savage may learn the use of a gun and be a savage still, but the moment he takes up a hoe he begins his march. All civilized peoples began their civilization with the simplest agricultural implements, and there also the American negro began. After a hundred years (which is more than the average of subjection to what is universally admitted to have been a hard rule of life, under any aspect of it), he was ready to be advanced to his next lesson. What that next lesson ought to be for the freedman is best answered by ascertaining what it was in the case of other races, since we ought not to expect any difference. There is no "royal road" for him, more than for others, and the beaten track must be followed.

In agricultural pursuits other races learned what the negro has learned, but also they gained what was quite unattainable by the slave—the spirit, that is, of independence and self-reliance, the real basis of all civilization worthy the name, the fruit of the union of liberty and energy. Now, since the negro could not cultivate this spirit along with his cotton and corn, as a slave, it is necessary that he now make it a special lesson. He is said to be free, but is he? Of course in a sense he is—free to go and come, free to work or starve, free to loaf around the country store and do the bidding of the keeper for a drink. Is all this freedom? After its sort, yes; but the sort is not satisfactory. The negro has no self-reliance and no feeling of independence, but it is coming to him more and more, yet little by little. His trust in his race has been strong enough all along since the war, and this has been sometimes mistaken for personal self-reliance; but whoever undertakes to do business with or for any large number of these people will bear testimony to the growing strength of individuality among them. It is all-important that this take a right direction. If it do not lead

to the development first of energy, and second of intellectual force, it were better it never began at all. There is a real danger in any large trust in mere numbers, as of a race, but there can come only good from a self-respecting, self-disciplined, and intelligent energy.

I have no idea that the schools will be of any great advantage to the present generation of negroes. The very young will profit most by them, while some even of such as are well advanced in life know how to read and write, and so have gained something. One of the mistakes of our day is the fancy that to read and write is to be educated. The great mass of these people are unable at present to go beyond this, and lack capacity for larger attainment; but the next generation will be freer and more capable, and the next more so still. If the negro shall have a little patience, and not undertake to leap chasms too broad for him, and if the white people of the North shall be content to let him develop according to the universal law, a very few generations will put the negro well forward of his present position. This may be safely predicted, since he will not need to work out his civilization, as most others have done, little by little, and often making hurtful blunders; but, in the midst of another race already enlightened, he must profit by their experience and their instruction.

I have already intimated my conviction that the negro cannot now be educated. He can be taught elementary learning, as how to read, write, and cipher, and to this effort I should rejoice to see given a larger and better-directed impulse than has shown itself up to this time. I have not examined the matter of taxation for schools in other negro States, but I know that in the State of Mississippi the school tax is a large proportion of the whole tax—so large that it does not seem possible to increase it without hardship; and yet our public schools are anything but satisfactory. Touching the proposition of Judge Tourgée to have the general Government undertake the burden of expense in maintaining schools for negroes in the Southern States, I for one should say that, being a free-trader, I am opposed on general principles to taking money belonging to all the people and expending it for the advantage of some of the people. Professor Sumner is right in his suggestion that the "forgotten man" be thought of once in a while. But if there can be any case in which it would be right for the general Government to bear the expense of education for any class, other than its own servants (as military officers), this is that case. The detail of the Tourgée plan is objectionable, but if the people find it possible to agree upon the outline of any plan at all, the detail can be arranged.

GEO. C. HARRIS.

MADISON STATION, MISS., March 4, 1885.

NUMBER OF POUNDS IN THE METRIC TON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. W. Howard White, in his communication on the metric system published in your issue of March 5th, speaks of the ton of 1,000 kilograms as being equivalent to 2,250 pounds.

The legal equivalent of the kilogram in the United States, as fixed by the act of Congress approved July 28th, 1866, is 2,204.6 pounds, that of the quintal of 100 kilograms is 220.46 pounds, and that of the ton of 1,000 kilograms is 2,204.6 pounds. A somewhat closer approximation to the precise mathematical equivalent is given by Professor E. B. Elliott, Government Actuary, in the extensive and admirable series of tables prepared by him years ago for Webster's Counting House Dictionary. Mr. Elliott's equivalent, based on the determination arrived at by the British Committee on the New Exchequer stan-

dards as reported to Parliament in 1854, is 2,204.621 pounds.

It seems probable that Mr. White had in view 2,205 pounds, as the nearest integral approximation to the equivalent of the metric ton, and inadvertently transposed the 0 and the 5; since so well-informed a writer may fairly be presumed to be acquainted with the relation between the pound and the kilogram, as established by the best authorities.—Respectfully,

EDWARD T. PETERS.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 9, 1885.

MUSEUMS OF PHOTOGRAPHS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Pertinent to M. Reinach's suggestion (*Nation*, February 26) as to the establishment in America of public museums of casts and photographs, it may be well to note that a beginning in this direction has been made in California.

In charge of the University of California Mr. John S. Hittell has placed a collection of nearly 1,000 photographs (normal size, 8 x 10 inches) of the masterpieces of ancient and modern sculpture, for the use and pleasure of the public. To this gift no conditions are attached but one, namely, that the collection be made most conveniently accessible to the people. It is confidently expected by Mr. Hittell that other Californians will generously contribute and make the collection more comprehensive, including photographs of the most notable pictures, public buildings, and monuments of the world.

The fact that sculpture yields itself to the photographer's art readily and with fine results, and, further, that excellent photographs may be gathered at slight expense compared with the cost of casts, should lead to the formation of similar collections throughout the country.

A catalogue of the photographs at the University is in preparation, and will be sent *gratis*, when published in May, to any address. It will contain the names and addresses of Continental publishers of photographs, and may be made the basis for the foundation of collections elsewhere.

—Yours truly,

J. C. ROWELL.

LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA,
BERKELEY, March 4, 1885.

Notes.

A SECOND and revised edition of the valuable work on 'United States Notes,' by ex-Comptroller Knox, with the figures brought down to 1885, has just been published by Charles Scribner's Sons. An edition has also been brought out in London.

Dr. Baird's 'History of the Huguenot Emigration to America,' which was announced for publication last autumn, but was postponed, is to be issued by Dadd, Mead & Co. in March. It is the fruit of investigations that have been carried on in this country, and in France and England, during the last ten or twelve years. The materials used have been found largely in unpublished documents.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are about issuing another edition of Harriet Martineau's Autobiography, as edited and supplemented by Mrs. Maria W. Chapman, in two volumes, crown octavo, at a reduced price.

Mr. Hamerton's work on 'Landscape' (Macmillan) will be found in the book-stores this week, along with Pater's 'Marius the Epicurean.'

Rebets Bros. have brought out a new edition of Mrs. Stowe's 'Pink and White Tyranny,' in paper covers, appropriately colored.

Charles Scribner's Sons publish by authority Captain Blunt's 'Instructions in Rifle and Carbine Firing for the U. S. Army,' a handy little pocket volume, with clasps.

The bound volume of Stormonth's 'Dictionary of the English Language' is now before us. In addition to what we have already said about this work, it is noticeable as an "old-fashioned" dictionary, in competition with those cyclopedias which are loth to give up the less pretentious name. It is, too, being of English origin, one more agency working against the Websterian orthography, which has apparently seen its best days. Finally, we remark the grouping of derivatives, as *natal* under *nary*, though this is not consistently carried out. In the new 'Webster's Condensed Dictionary,' a like grouping is based upon primitive roots, so that one must look for *nary* under *nauseau*!

Of Mr. Spofford's *American Almanac* (American News Company), and Mr. Keltie's *Statesman's Year Book* (Macmillan & Co.), for 1885, it is sufficient to say that they have made their customary appearance, and will be welcomed by all who know their value as statistical repositories. Mr. Spofford sets down Cleveland's plurality as 62,683, remarking on the discrepancies in the footings which are inevitable under our method of voting indirectly for President. The most popular, the least popular, and the average elector may be selected as representing the vote of any given State.

The book-buying public deserves to be warned of a very gross abuse of its own right as well as of copyright. It is well known that Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. publish, by arrangement with the author, Hugh Conway's collection of short stories called 'Thrown Together.' All but five of these have been taken by J. S. Ogilvie & Co. and issued under the title, 'Circumstantial Evidence, and Other Stories.' The title story is, in the Holt edition, called 'The Bandman's Story,' and of the seven, in all, which are pirated, not one has been left with the title bestowed upon it by its author. "My First Client," to take another instance, becomes "The Doctor's Patient."

The burning question for our colleges raised by Harvard's scheme of elective studies is discussed in two pamphlets before us, 'The New Departure in College Education,' being President McCosh's reply to President Eliot last month (Scribners), and 'Some Important Questions in Higher Education,' by President A. D. White (Ithaca, N. Y.: Andrus & Church.)

The latest issue of Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. iii, part 3) is largely devoted to memorial notices of the late Stephen Salisbury, the Society's President for many years and most liberal benefactor. His life was a fine example of New England cultivation, public spirit, and ever-present sense of responsibility for the right employment of wealth. A steel portrait of Mr. Salisbury accompanies the text. The report of the Council is made the medium of a valuable contribution to the history of banking in New England, based on the discovery of a rare tract printed in 1682. This essay bears the authoritative signatures of J. Hammond Trumbull and Samuel S. Green.

In like manner, the number for December, 1884, (just out) of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* opens with tributes to the worth of the late president of the society whose organ it is—Mr. John William Wallace, an eminent law reporter, like his father, and a descendant of William Bradford, the first printer of our middle colonies. For the rest, this number is peculiarly rich in inedited and curious matter. Mr. W. M. Conway furnishes a minute account of sundry portraits of descendants of William Penn, and there is a charming phototype of Juliana Penn from the original canvas. We must mention also a transcript from a lost regimental memorandum book (1775) of Benedict Arnold; General Joseph Reed's narrative of army movements near Trenton in the winter of 1776.

77; a letter of Franklin's concerning his mother's relatives in England, only known in part hitherto (1758); Samuel Foulke's memorandum of the proceedings of the Pennsylvania Assembly in 1761-62, etc.

Outing for April becomes a full-blown illustrated magazine, with a cover which is a great improvement on the former design. As already announced, Mr. Julian Hawthorne begins in it his new story, "Love—or a Name."

The *United Service* for March contains some strictures on the British military operations in the Sudan, by General C. P. Stone, and a review of General Grant's recent account, in the *Century*, of the campaign and battle of Shiloh, by General Jordan. The second article we have found more profitable reading than the first.

The March number of *Babyhood* marks steady progress in the conduct of this periodical. It has evidently taken hold of the mothers, and both their questions and their experiences enhance the value of each successive number.

We have received Dr. Charles Denison's roller map of the climate of the United States (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.). On one side is graphically depicted, from the data for the year 1883, the annual cloudiness, temperature, rainfall, winds, range of temperature, dew point, etc., together with the elevations. On the other are four smaller seasonal charts to the same effect, while the side-spaces are availed of for tabulated statistics. The interest which these data possess for invalids (to mention but a single class), is heightened by lists of the mineral springs and health stations in the United States.

How many nations of Europe are now interested on their own account in making and studying war-maps, all relating, too, to foreign lands. Italy's Red Sea expedition is the cause of one just issued by A. Villardi, at Milan. It embraces Africa east of the meridian of Tunis and Fernando Po and north of Zanzibar, but is especially valuable for its side-maps—of Assab and its environs, of Massowah, of Danakil, etc.

By good right Berlin, the seat of the late Congo Conference, should have the mapping of the result of that famous gathering. Dr. Richard Kiepert's "Map of the Congo Basin" (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer) has already reached a second edition. It is on a scale of about seventy miles to the inch, and it is wonderful to behold the native "empires" marked out on it with colored boundaries. France and Portugal come next after the International Association in the size and importance of their respective adjacent possessions. America, fortunately, is represented only by the track of her explorer, Stanley. The "free-trade zone" here outlined is vast and vague enough.

For the present, the needful maps of Africa are completed by "Stanford's Popular Map of the Seat of Military Operations in the Sudan" (G. P. Putnam's Sons), on the scale of twenty miles to the inch. It embraces the tract from Korti to Khartum on the south, and Suakim on the Red Sea. Side-maps show the whole of the Egyptian territory, and also, on a larger scale, Khartum and its environs. This map is very full of names, and is in every way useful for the student of current events.

A Dante trade catalogue in the United States is sufficiently rare to deserve mention. Such a one has been sent us by Anton Bicker, No. 78 Johnston Building, Cincinnati. It contains 172 numbers. If not disposed of *en bloc* before May 1, the collection will be sold on individual offers.

Francesco d'Ovidio, writing in the *Domenica del Fracassa*, comes to the support of Professor Bártoli's indication that Bosone da Gubbio was the person to whom Petrarch addressed his famous canzone, "Spírito gentil." He had jumped to the same conclusion himself, after having

ruled out all the other claimants. His argument is forcible and unstrained at all points. Especially good is his denial of our present competency to judge of the importance of Petrarch's contemporaries, and his contention that a poet bursting with desire to deliver his message will make a pretext of a less than capital personage. He notes also the conditional tenses and phrases used in stimulating Bosone, and contrasts them with what must have been employed towards Rienzi, the putative "spírito gentil," after he obtained the tribuneship. How absurd, he suggests, it would have been to address Garibaldi, after Calatafimi, "Since you have now reached (*giunto*) the honorable grade of General of the Thousand, I should advise you to take courage and essay the liberation of Southern Italy; if I do not mistake, the present is a good time, and you might achieve a great distinction for yourself."

Polybiblion for February states that the *Revue Catholique*, of Bordeaux, is about to publish the souvenirs of Mme. de Chateaubriand, which have just been placed in the editor's hands, together with many valuable autograph manuscripts, by a grand-niece of the author of the *Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe*. The same number of *Polybiblion* contains this singular notification: "One of our collaborateurs has just finished a study on Mgr. de Condorcet, and urgently desires our readers to indicate to him the sources and documents pertaining to this prelate."

In the *Revue Scientifique*, February 21, is a curious table, prepared by Mr. James Jackson, of different rates of motion expressed in metres to the second. Out of 132 phenomena cited, the slowest is the Mer de Glace, which moves at the rate of 99 ten-millionths of a metre, while next following it is the bamboo, which grows more than seven times as fast, and the third is a glacier in Greenland, whose maximum velocity is twenty-five times as great as that of the Swiss glacier. The swiftest motion recorded is that of the current from a Leyden jar, 463,500,000 metres a second; and next to it, though at a distance of 150,000,000 of metres, is the speed of the electric light. The fastest of animals is the *martinet* or swift. The tornado at Wallingford, Conn., in 1882, and a train on the Bound Brook Road, New Jersey, are cited as the greatest velocities recorded of wind and steam.

'Le Livre de Demain' is the title of a novel book recently published by M. de Rochas, at Blois. It is printed on various kinds of paper with different colored inks, and consists of selections in prose and verse, as well as an account of inks, paper, and the art of typography. The peculiarity of the book is the endeavor to suit the paper, ink, and type even, to the subject of the selection. M. de Rochas contends that a love poem, for instance, printed with light ink on rose-tinted paper, will make a far deeper impression than if printed with black ink on white paper. In order to test his theory, he prints several poems and short stories in accordance with it, and he certainly secures some very picturesque effects, and produces a unique specimen of typography.

The *Portfolio* for March falls below its average in both illustrative and literary attraction. The Hagborg etching is poor and trite as subject, and diffuse and ineffective as etching, and the Canterbury etching is weak. A facsimile of Dürer's "Christmas Day" is interesting, and especially so is a study by W. Watkiss Lloyd on "The Drama of the Greeks in relation to the Arts."

The report of the Apprentices' Library, which, by the way, boasts of being the largest free library in this city, though its 68,000 volumes are not known to *Polybiblion*, is very satisfactory in one respect. The reading of light fiction shows a falling off of 7,148 volumes, and the reading of history, biography, and travels, an increase of 800,

which is in the right proportion, for it takes nine times as long to read profitably an historical work as to rush through a volume of the Seaside or Franklin Square Library. Similarly, though there were eight more readers than the year before, the number of books borrowed was less by 6,348, which is merely another way of stating the improvement in the quality of the reading. Evidently, mere comparison of totals of circulation is no test of the comparative usefulness of libraries. The improvement in the Apprentices' Library may be traced directly, we believe, to the publication during the last year of the classified lists of selected books which we have already noticed. The same result was seen in the Boston Public Library on the publication of its annotated class catalogues, and has been noticed wherever similar helps to choice in reading have been given to the public.

From the annual report of the Director of the Dearborn Observatory at Chicago, Prof. G. W. Hough, it appears that the chief instruments have been kept in constant use. A gas engine is now employed to turn the dome covering the great telescope. The Repsold meridian circle is used only for observations connected with the time-service. The great telescope, of eighteen inches aperture, has been exclusively employed in the observation of a few objects, (1) the Pons-Brooks comet, the changes in the structure of which were not remarkable; (2) difficult double stars, thirty-two new objects of this class having been discovered by Professor Hough; (3) the planet Jupiter, the principal objects of interest being the great red spot first noticed in 1878, and which has maintained its size, shape, and outline with very slight change, the great equatorial belt, which has been subject to gradual drift in latitude from year to year, and the equatorial white spots, which, with the envelope they are situate in, move with a velocity of 260 miles per hour, thus revolving about the planet in a month and a half; (4) the planet Saturn, with negative results so far as markings on or subdivisions of the rings were concerned; and (5) the satellites of Uranus, which were such difficult objects as not to have been frequently seen. Six drawings of Jupiter's disk were made, four of which are printed in the report. As heretofore, Mr. S. W. Burnham has continued his observations of double stars with the great telescope.

We learn from *Nature* that M. Charles Feil has, after some years' absence, returned to the active management of his celebrated manufactory of optical glass in Paris, the new firm being "Feil père et Mautois." M. Feil is grandson to M. Guinaud, who, some sixty years since, by a mode of working almost identical with that adopted by the celebrated potter, Palissy, overcame the serious obstacles which occur in securing the perfect homogeneity of both crown and flint glass, and whose secrets have descended to his grandson.

—We have received from the publishers, Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons, the first volume of the uniform edition of the works of Alexander Hamilton, edited by Henry Cabot Lodge. It is in most respects a beautiful specimen of book-making, the tone of the paper, the clearness of the type, and the good taste of the binding being highly creditable to the publishers from whose press it comes, and a remarkable proof of the steady advance the typographical art is making on this side of the Atlantic. Vol. i contains a preface by the editor, a "Hamilton Chronology" which is very valuable for purposes of reference, and an instalment of the works (579 pages in all), comprising the "Publius" letters, Hamilton's speeches in the Federal and in the New York Conventions, and many minor publications. The editor, in his preface, says with regard to the ar-

rangement of the edition that the primary object in view is to bring into one book all Hamilton's writings—this never having been done heretofore, even in the John C. Hamilton edition of 1851. It will include, he says, the 'Federalist'—presumably only Hamilton's contributions to it. It will also include the famous Reynolds pamphlet, which, as Hamilton published the story to vindicate his honor as a public man, his admirers will be glad to see preserved. Mr. Lodge very justly says that it is almost impossible to overestimate the importance of Hamilton's influence upon the development of American institutions; and it seems at first singular that, with the mass of Americans, the name of his rival Jefferson, whose public services and intellect were certainly inferior to those of Hamilton, should be still a conjuring-word for a great political party, while Hamilton's solid legacy to his country is simply enjoyed without gratitude and without thought. The explanation lies partly in the fact that Hamilton addressed the reason of a rising Democracy, while Jefferson appealed to its sentiments. For the time Jefferson triumphed, but Hamilton's fame was to be vindicated later. Jeffersonian Democracy a generation afterward was taken advantage of, as only a sentimental creed could have been, by slavery, first to extend its own influence, then to break up the Union. The early Federalist idea that the Union was a nation triumphed, and the doctrine of States-rights perished. It can hardly be revived again, and, in the future, parties can hardly divide on issues which will make Jeffersonian Democracy intelligible as a political creed. Accordingly, since the war the younger generation of Americans have turned more and more to the writings of Hamilton, the genius of the Revolution, to study the principles which he and his friends formulated as the guiding principles of republican government. He was one of the great men of the last century who perceived, as if by inspiration, the truths about modern government for which Europe had been groping blindly for generations. It was one of those cases of inspiration which carried conviction with it, for the strangest feature of Hamilton's life is, that from the time when as a mere boy he began his work, he succeeded in convincing his opponents against their will. He was possessed by the spirit of truth, and if later in life his partisanship clouded his vision, his message had already been delivered, and become part of the solid fabric of American government itself.

—The burden of President Eliot's latest annual report to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College consists in a minute history of the development of elective studies at that institution. It is well calculated to allay alarm concerning the changes made in the past twenty years to find that, at the instance of Judge Story, a beginning was made in the same direction sixty years ago. Nor is the freedom now attained anything like, in practice, what might be supposed. For example, the present Freshman class was at liberty to choose between "twenty-five full courses and six half-courses"; but the range of studies involved in this scheme embraced only Latin, Greek, French, German, history, mathematics, and science, and four out of these seven were obligatory. As French was prescribed if the candidate had passed in German, and *vice versa*, it appears that, at the end of the Freshman year, the differentiation in kind of scholarship among the members of the same class will be confined to two studies. The difference in degree will be measured by the courses above mentioned, and by individual ability.

—"In regard to studies, discipline, and the selection of teachers," says President Eliot, "the Governing Boards and the Faculties have for

eighteen years unitedly and steadily pursued a distinctively University policy, national, unsectarian, and comprehensive in scope, and intended to assure freedom to both teachers and students." The recent decision of the President and Fellows in regard to voluntary attendance at prayers shows that this policy still lacks something of completeness; and we hope that the next annual report will be devoted to an historical review of the progress in religious discipline for sixty years—say, from 1826, when the study of Hebrew, from being prescribed, became optional. This seems already necessary in order to justify an alarming innovation in the Divinity School, where also the paean of freedom is sounded by President Eliot. The Dean of the school calls special attention to the fact that "marks for absence were first given up at lectures, then at chapel, and finally the student was left free to select the studies which he would pursue and the order in which he would pursue them." This is the more extraordinary because we cannot imagine theological students to be capable of a perfunctory performance at prayers, as is the case with ninety-nine-hundredths of the undergraduates to whom the liberty of non-attendance is denied. There is, therefore, nothing shocking in the idea of compulsion as applied to the former. We observe that among the lectures at the Divinity School last year was one on Vivisection, by the Dean of the Medical Faculty. This suggests the utility of a lecture to the undergraduates by the Dean of the Divinity School, setting forth the grounds of his liberality in respect to prayers in his own domain.

—The English Blue Books, as a rule, have but little interest for American historical students. The Ninth Report of the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts, Sessional Papers, 1883, vol. xxxvii, is, however, a conspicuous exception. It contains (Appendix III) a collection of papers now in the possession of Mrs. Stopford Sackville, of Drayton House, which descended to her from Lord George Sackville, afterward Viscount Sackville, but better known in this country as Lord George Germain. Lord George was the third son of the first Duke of Dorset. He was at one time Commander-in-Chief of the English army in Germany, and was cashiered for his behavior at Minden. This, however, did not prevent his attaining high political preferment, and he was Secretary of State for the colonies from 1775-1782. Thus, during the Seven Years' War and the American Revolution, he was in correspondence with the leaders in the military, naval, and civil services. By far the greater part of the papers in this collection, therefore, are really state papers. Such are letters from Wolfe and Amherst written in 1758. Such, also, are the letters, reports, and instructions to and from Burgoyne, Clinton, Cornwallis, Rodney, Arbuthnot, Collier, and W. Eden, afterward Lord Auckland (1775-1782). Besides these, and dealing with English politics rather than with the American war, are letters from Lord North, Lord Suffolk, etc. Many of these are marked "Private" or "Most Secret." Taken altogether, they give one an inside view of the conduct of the war. Especially is the want of confidence felt by Clinton, Arbuthnot, and Rodney toward each other brought out. The despatches from Lord Cornwallis give a full account of his campaigns in the Southern colonies; while those of Burgoyne add considerably to our knowledge of his operations in the North. As throwing a sidelight on the history of the time, should be mentioned a collection of letters from Lord George to his friend, Lieut.-Gen. Sir John Irwin (1761-1784); and a few letters from Lieut.-Col. Benjamin Thompson, afterward Count Rumford, to Lord George Germain.

—No doubt in all federations there is a contest between the centralizing and the decentralizing forces. In the United States centralization has had the upper hand since the war, and perhaps the opposite tendency is to have its turn, though it is difficult to see what it can do beyond delaying the inevitable a few years. In Switzerland an era of centralization is perhaps just beginning. The particular occasion of its manifestation at present is the choice of a place of deposit for a very fine collection of lacustrine relics bought for 60,000 francs from Doctor Gress. The Federal Council, in announcing the purchase, said that probably some of the cities of western Switzerland would be glad to furnish a room for it; and if, contrary to all expectation, they should not, it would be temporarily deposited at the Polytechnic School at Zurich. Geneva, Lausanne, Neuchâtel, Neuveville, and Bienne immediately offered excellent quarters in connection with their respective scientific establishments. But, after all, the Federal Council decided to put it into the Federal palace at Bern. Of course there was great disappointment among the lake cities, and a shiver of apprehension among the partisans of State rights. With the Gress collection at the Federal capital, will there not soon be a National Museum there, which certain bolder spirits have been talking of for some time? And if a national historical and prehistoric museum is once founded, everything will go to it, and then what will become of the museums at the cities we mentioned above, and at Basle, Aarau, Lucerne, Saint Gall, and Schaffhausen? No such fears were felt when our National Museum was founded, but we Americans proverbially take things easy, and then our country is so large that one city can never entirely dwarf the rest, particularly a city that is never likely to have either manufactures or commerce to any extent. It is otherwise with Switzerland, and it would really be a pity if any one of her cities should be the Paris of the rest.

—A French lady has sent to the *Revue Bleue* some reminiscences of Colorado, where she was (and perhaps is) living with her husband, at Golden, six miles from Denver. The familiar features of Western life are detailed—the social equality, the difficulty of getting servants, the poor quality of the service when one succeeds in getting any, the monotonously bad cooking, the enormous quantity of sweets devoured, the sudden reverses of fortune, the occasional violence and the occasional lynching, the washerwomen who own pianos and the expressmen who live in clematis-covered villas, the juxtaposition of the telephone and the Nez-Percés. We have heard of all these things from Americans and Englishmen, but one is curious to know how they strike an intelligent Frenchwoman. This one, at least, is well pleased. She thinks the climate admirable, the moonlight magnificent; she is proud of the quick growth of the eight-year-old State, of its mineral and agricultural riches, of the wonderful railroads through the mountains, and of the enchanting Middle Park. The art she laughs at, and no wonder, for American art to her was exemplified by an enormous painting in a Denver hotel, ingeniously representing Adam and Eve without navels, on the ground that as they never had been born they could not have had them. The cookery, too, she detests, and felicitates herself on having secured a Marseilles cook and a maid who, according to American custom, "is called a Swede because she is a Norwegian." Nor does she speak altogether well of the people: they are amusing for a month or two, while one is getting acquainted with the genus, but there are no species—the individuals are just alike. "Charley resembles Georgy, and Georgy does not differ more from Dicks than if Charley,

Georgy, and Dicks had been cast from the same mould." Society does not please her better. She wants something more select than a reunion of Colonel X, the hardware dealer Y, and young Z, who drives a wood-cart. She feels uncomfortable when, in a dance, she takes the hand of the sheriff, which the day before may have tied the noose round the neck of a criminal. Yet she acknowledges some of the good results of this equality—the refined manners of the expressman's wife, the musical education of the washerwoman's son, the fortitude in bearing reverses of fortune which comes from poverty being an inconvenience only, and not a disgrace. It is a curious instance of the way in which things happen in couples, that almost at the same moment this lady, who perhaps never heard of Matthew Arnold, and Matthew Arnold, who certainly never heard of this lady, should publish—the one in London, the other in Paris—the same comparison of France and America. Matthew Arnold, in his palinode in the *Nineteenth Century*, declared that in France the hatred between rich and poor is intense, because there, though the institutions may be republican, the ideas and the morals are not republican; while in America there is no such hatred, and the United States is in no danger of revolution, because ideas and morals are republican as well as institutions. Mme. G. praises the Yankees because, instead of putting Equality on the walls (alluding to the inscription "Liberté, Égalité, Fraternité" which one sees on every public building and church in Paris), they have introduced it into their social customs.

—Berlioz's *Symphonie Fantastique*, "Épisode de la Vie d'un Artiste," formed the principal number of Saturday's Philharmonic programme, which also contained Schumann's "Manfred" overture, Wagner's *Siegfried Idyl*, and Rheinberger's symphonic tone-pictures of "Wallenstein's Camp and the Capuchin's Sermon." Regarding Berlioz's symphony—if we may perpetrate a Hibernicism—we feel tempted to remark that its best feature is the twenty-page essay which Schumann wrote on it. This essay is based on the remarkable pianoforte arrangement made by Liszt; but as the instrumentation is therein briefly indicated, Schumann was enabled to form a fairly accurate estimate of Berlioz's work. This estimate is on the whole very favorable, but it is noticeable that Schumann did not preserve his interest in Berlioz's following efforts, for, although his critical pen remained active for many years, he did not again employ it in Berlioz's behalf. The essay is of interest not only as an analysis of the fantastic symphony, but as a confession of Schumann's creed regarding programme music and other questions that divide musical opinion; and it is so full of subtle suggestions that it forms a more valuable treatise on musical aesthetics than the systematic works of German metaphysicians, not excepting Hanslick's popular book on "The Beautiful in Music." What, for instance, could be more delicious and instructive than Schumann's remark, that the Berlioz symphony contains "many commonplace harmonies and some that are faulty or at least forbidden by the old rules, some of which, however, have a superb effect," or, as a topsy-turvy Frenchman put it, "que cela est fort beau, quoique ce n'est pas de la musique." Abrupt and "faulty" harmonic progressions have been made so familiar (and dear) to modern ears by Liszt and Wagner that if Schumann wrote at the present day, he would hardly deem it necessary or advisable to call attention to them. Schumann is very indignant with Fétis for asserting that Berlioz lacks melodic and harmonic ideas: "If M. Fétis asserts that in regard to melody even the warmest friends of Berlioz do

not dare to defend him, then I must count myself among Berlioz's enemies; bear in mind, however, that I am not speaking of Italian melody, which we know by heart before it commences." In this question we regret to be obliged to side with that old fogey, Fétis. The *Fantastic Symphony* was so admirably rendered under Mr. Thomas's baton on Saturday that all its features must have been made clear; yet ideas, both melodic and harmonic, seemed to us as scarce as wild strawberries in November. It is, however, a very creditable composition for a youth of seventeen, and it gives evidence of that mastery of the orchestra which Berlioz subsequently carried to such a point of perfection. Many passages give an impression as if the orchestral effect had risen in his mind first, whereupon a musical theme was sought to wed with it; but the coy ideas refused to come at his bidding. Schumann very properly defends Berlioz's method of sacrificing "beauty" to realism (characterization) where the subject demands this; but he seems to draw the line at Berlioz's deliberate burlesque of the *Dies Irae*. On the other hand, we do not share Schumann's objections to the elaborate programme which Berlioz wrote for his symphony, for it seems to us that this programme is a greater work of art than the symphony itself. It is a weird prose-poem in five scenes, depicting in the first three movements the dreams, sufferings, and hopes of a lover; in the fourth his despair, and an opium-dream in which he beholds himself dragged to execution for having murdered his sweetheart; and in the fifth a dream in a "Sabbath" night in which devilish orgies are witnessed, the fixed idea or typical melody associated with his love is degraded, and sacred things parodied. In this last scene bells are introduced, those used on Saturday being the set of bars that were prepared last year for the performance of selections from "Parsifal." Not many years ago it was customary to speak of a Wagner-Berlioz school, and in regard to instrumentation there is some justification for thus coupling these names together; but an examination of Berlioz's programme to his fantastic symphony shows that the two composers resembled each other more in their literary power of depicting a situation vividly with a few well-chosen words than they did in the character of their music. As for Schumann, we suspect, in view of his subsequent silence, that his championship of Berlioz was in this instance due largely to the fact that Berlioz boldly came forward and made practical demonstration of certain revolutionary principles which Schumann secretly cherished, and was eager to proclaim at the first opportunity.

INDIA IN 1857.

The Personal Adventures and Experiences of a Magistrate during the Rise, Progress, and Suppression of the Indian Mutiny. By Mark Thornhill, Bengal Civil Service, Retired. London: John Murray.

In the days of the Delhi Emperors, India, for administrative purposes, was divided into *soubahs*, or provinces, each of which was ruled by a *Soubahdar*; and these *soubahs* were further subdivided into *zillahs* or districts. The district was the administrative unit, and its administration was intrusted to an official called the *Zemindar*—the most powerful landed proprietor in the district being, as a rule, the person pitched upon for this office. The *sunnud*, or patent appointing him, specified that he was to "observe a conciliatory conduct toward the ryots and inhabitants at large, exerting himself to the utmost in punishing and expelling the refractory"; that he was to "pay the revenue of government into the public treasury at the stated periods";

that he was to "encourage the body of the landholders in such a manner that signs of an increased cultivation and improvement of the country may daily appear," and to "keep the highroads in such repair that travellers may pass and repass in the fullest confidence and security." This ancient system of administration remains unsuperverted to this day. But the *soubahs* are now governed by English Governors, Lieutenant-Governors, or Chief Commissioners, according to their size and importance; and in the *zillah*, an English official known as a Magistrate-Collector has replaced the *Zemindar* of bygone times. The functions of the magistrate are identical with those of the *Zemindar*. He is a kind of factotum whom the Government holds responsible for everything, and the consequence is that at first hand, at least, he knows very little indeed. To execute his orders and conduct all inquiries he has under him a huge army of underpaid native subordinates, and these are, in deed and in truth, the veritable rulers of British India at this moment. They are spread out as an impenetrable wall between the magistrate and the great body of the people. The daily routine of his official work is as much as the overworked magistrate can get through in the day. He has no time to sift and examine into the statements and reports made by his native subordinates; he has to accept whatever information they choose to pour into his ears, from sheer inability to ascertain anything more authentic for himself.

The destruction of the native gentry—which has invariably been the first result of the introduction of British rule in an Indian province—has greatly aggravated the isolation of the magistrate-collector, by removing the one class which might have possessed sufficient courage and independence of spirit to resist the oppression of the subordinate officials of the Government. Indeed, the position filled in old time by this ruined aristocracy is now in a great measure occupied by men who were at one time petty employees of the British administration, or who became possessed of it by means of an illicit and nefarious collusion with them. It was due to this absolute separation from the people that such an insurrection as that of 1857 was secretly matured through a great part of the Bengal Presidency, without any forewarning of the event reaching a single one of the many scores of magistrates who imagined themselves to be governing their districts at the time. Mr. Thornhill, whose book we are about to review, was one of these magistrates, and he confesses his own entire ignorance, at the time, of the habits, feelings, and thoughts of the native population, with an ingenuous candor which disarms censure, but cannot but excite a good deal of amazement. It inevitably suggests the thought—are the relations between rulers and ruled in a healthier condition now? Or, is it not the case that the increased facilities for returning to Europe have made an even deeper gulf between them, and that a mine might be dug beneath the very feet of the unconscious ruling class as easily in 1885 as in 1857? Quitting these speculations, we can cordially commend Mr. Thornhill's "experiences" to the notice of all those interested in the history and the future of that marvellous anomaly, the British empire in India. As regards the efficient causes of the general collapse of British authority throughout Bengal, which followed almost instantly upon the occurrence of the military mutiny at Meerut, they will find more light thrown from the pages of this modestly written and unassuming little book than in any of the histories of the Sepoy War (so far, that is, as we are acquainted with them). With Mr. Thornhill's book we would couple another, published shortly after the mutiny, entitled "Personal Adventures during the

Mutiny,' by a Mr. Edwards, like Mr. Thornhill, an Indian magistrate.

Mr. Thornhill was magistrate of the district of Muttra, in the Northwest Provinces, when the insurrection began, and the chief part of the present volume is taken up with a narrative of his personal experiences. He was frequently in situations of considerable peril, and these he describes with an unobtrusive minuteness which reminds the reader of Defoe's descriptions, and which impresses him in a very similar way. But the lasting value of the book arises from the many incidental touches revealing the weaknesses and imperfections of the British Government, the fond and wistful manner in which, beneath a resigned exterior, the people clung to the remembrance of that old order which the English had overthrown, and the zest with which they relished the brief period of recovered freedom. Take, for example, the following passage. If no other portion of the people had regretted the collapse of British rule, it might have been expected to kindle a lively regret in the minds of those native subordinates who reaped so many illicit advantages from its peculiar constitution. The termination of British rule meant the termination of their day of power, not less than that of their white official superiors. Yet this is how they greeted the intelligence:

"When breakfast was over I left my guests and went to my own room, where my office people were assembled. I had hitherto kept silence about the mutiny, so far at least as was possible, partly from fear of exciting alarm, partly lest, if the news should prove false, I might appear ridiculous. There was now no longer any object in concealment. I told them what I had heard; they expressed great astonishment; but ere long I perceived from the remarks they let fall that they had heard it all before, and, indeed, as regarded what had occurred at Delhi, that they were much better informed than I was. All regular work was suspended; when a few papers had been signed and some orders issued, there remained nothing more to do. However, to while away the time, I continued to chat with them about the events at Delhi. They soon got so interested in the country as partly to forget my presence. Their talk was all about the ceremonial of the palace, and how it would be revived. They speculated as to who would be the Grand Chamberlain, which of the Chiefs of Rajpootana would guard the different gates, and who were the fifty-two Rajahs who would assemble to place the Emperor on the throne. As I listened I realized, as I had never done before, the deep impression that the splendor of the ancient court had made on the popular imagination, how dear to them were its traditions, and how faithfully all unknown to us they had preserved them. There was something weird in the Mogul Empire thus starting into a sort of phantom life after the slumber of a hundred years."

We have referred to the annihilation of the native aristocracy as constituting the first and invariable result of the introduction of British rule in an Indian province. This annihilation, which was deliberate and intentional, was due to a cause which, in the histories of the English in India, has been allowed to fall almost out of sight, viz.: the commercial character of the East India Company. For a long time after it became the sovereign power in India, the Company continued also a trading association, having commercial dealings with India and China, and responsible for the punctual payment of dividends to the proprietors of the East India stock, as well as other heavy liabilities. But for the carrying on of these commercial operations, and the discharge of these recurring liabilities, it did not possess one farthing of capital beyond that which its Governors-General could extract from its "Indian estates" after paying the costs of the administration and that of the wars in which they were so incessantly involved. Thus the Government at Calcutta was always under a necessity to transmit annually large sums to the Court of Directors over and above the normal charges of the administration;

and so urgent was the pressure put upon them from London, that when Lord William Bentinck was Governor-General, he actually contemplated the pulling down of that beautiful and unique building, the Taj at Agra, in order to sell the marble, and so for a brief period silence the clamors of the Court of Directors. The Indian landed aristocracy fell victims to the greed and impecuniosity of the East India Company in their character as a trading association. They were condemned to destruction as a class absorbing for their own uses a large amount of wealth, which under a wiser and more equitable order of things would be divided, in the form of half-yearly dividends, among the proprietors of East India stock. To justify the ruin of this class and the confiscation of their property, it was represented as sunk in indolence and debauchery; as exercising a cruel and universal tyranny over the masses of the people, the extinction of which would do more to strengthen and popularize British rule in India than any other policy that could be devised. It never occurred to the framers of this remarkable policy that the ruin of the landed aristocracy was not equivalent to their extermination from the face of the earth. Though impoverished, they still continued to dwell amid the scenes of their former wealth and influence, with hearts full of just wrath against the causes of their misfortunes, and eager to seize upon the first opportunity for retaliation. As little did it occur to the Court of Directors or their officials in India, that, though the common people might acquiesce in the destruction of the aristocracy, if they benefited by it, they would have no cause to do so if the reverse was the case. And, as it happened, their last state proved to be worse than their first. The disappearance of the aristocracy did not lighten their burdens by a single penny; on the contrary, the money which these wealthy land-owners used to expend was now carried clean out of the country, for the benefit of a trading company at the other end of the world.

As long as the Indian Government could rely upon its native soldiers to enforce its commands, the effects of this sordid policy were not apparent. But when its native army mutinied, its power collapsed everywhere except in the immediate vicinity of its few English regiments. It could not be said that the people threw it off: it merely came to an end and disappeared.

"Three weeks," writes Mr. Thornhill, "had hardly elapsed since the commencement of the mutiny, but in that short period a large portion of the district had lapsed into anarchy. Order was only maintained in the towns, and in those few portions of the country where the ancient proprietors still held possession of their villages." "It was," he adds in another place, "the belief of the Government and also of the English generally, that the natives were attached to our rule, and, moreover, that, weary of the present anarchy, they longed for the reestablishment of order. My present experience did not confirm this belief. No one regretted the loss of our rule, and, with the exception of the Bunniahs (i. e., money-lenders) who suffered by it, all classes enjoyed the confusion. A large landholder once expressed his feelings to me very frankly. He said 'that the last three months had been the happiest of his life. He went about in state, and did what he liked; whom he would be punished, and whom he would be rewarded.' . . . Besides," he continued, "what with the heavy land revenue, the school rates, and all the other new cesses, the taxation had become pretty well unbearable." In a large proprietor, these sentiments were natural, but it was a little surprising to find that very similar sentiments were entertained by the peasant cultivators, and by that still lower class who, of all others, had especially benefited by our rule. . . . They liked the freedom they were then enjoying—they liked the excitement; and, better than all, they liked paying no revenue and wiping off old scores with the Bunniahs. To a certain extent, I could enter into their feelings. The

change in the appearance of the country was, even to a spectator, very agreeable. . . . In every village fortifications sprang up, the grandees resumed their ancient state, surrounded themselves with troops of attendants, hosts of armed retainers. When they appeared abroad it was with cavalcades of beautiful horses, camels gayly caparisoned, and crowds of followers carrying swords and spears, and clothed in the brightest of dresses. Life was now for them full of poetry, full of romance and wondrous rumors, vague anticipations."

Not less valuable than these authentic glimpses of native life and feeling is Mr. Thornhill's description of the British Government, its hopeless bondage to routine, and its consequent incapacity to deal with, or even to understand, a crisis so unexpected as the insurrection of 1857. The Punjab saved the rest of the Bengal Presidency because there British rule was too recent a creation to have "lost touch" of the people; but in the Northwest Provinces the officials, from long working in official grooves, were as men at work in a deep cutting. The surrounding country was now hidden from their eyes—unknown and disregarded. What saved the British dominion was the inability of the population to combine or even to form any general plan, and the non-appearance of a leader of commanding character. These elements of weakness insure the permanence of British rule in India so long as it is not menaced or assailed by foes from without. But the force of circumstances is now compelling the English to defend their interests in India by the occupation of countries which are not a part of it, and where they will come into contact—and probably into collision—with European Powers. We refer to the position of affairs in Egypt, in Afghanistan, and in Burma. It is certain that at no distant date these three countries must become outlying provinces of their Indian Empire, with the effect that Russia at one extremity and France at another will become their immediate neighbors. In the event of a rupture with either of these Powers, the stability of their rule in India would be menaced by dangers for which there is no precedent in its previous history. The Indian garrison—and especially the English portion of it—would have to be concentrated at points far outside of the Indian frontiers (properly so called), leaving British authority within those limits at the mercy of the uncoerced loyalty of the people.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF PRODUCTS.

The Distribution of Products, or the Mechanism and the Metaphysics of Exchange. By Edward Atkinson. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THIS work consists of three essays entitled respectively, "What makes the Rate of Wages?" "What is a Bank?" and "The Railway, the Farmer, and the Public." It is evident that some of the most important questions of modern society may be treated under these heads. As a matter of fact, the first and most important essay discusses the whole subject of the distribution of wealth in our modern industrial economy. Mr. Atkinson's fundamental proposition is the formula of Bastiat, that, "in proportion to the increase of capital, the absolute share of a given product falling to capital is augmented, but the relative share is diminished, while, on the other hand, the share falling to labor is increased both absolutely and relatively." He assumes that if this statement can be proved to be true, the whole question of the future of the laboring classes is solved in an eminently satisfactory way. For if the laborers are obtaining a constantly increasing share of the product both absolutely and relatively in comparison with the capitalists, their condition must be constantly improving, and every year is bringing us nearer the time when the present strained relation of laborer and

employer will give way to an "era of good feeling" which must be permanent, since it will rest on a flourishing state of the laborers, coupled with a full recognition on their part of the beneficent service of capital.

Gladly as we would believe in the probability of such a solution of our present social problems, we are nevertheless compelled to ask for a stronger proof of it than Mr. Atkinson has given us. It is a life-and-death question in our modern world. Mr. Atkinson tells us it is solving itself in the most happy way. If so, of course, we need take no positive measures of any kind; but if, on the contrary, these problems will not solve themselves, it is possible that we may be lulled into a false security by such hope-inspiring prophets until it be too late. Two strong objections may be made to our author's view. In the first place, it cannot be admitted that either he or Bastiat has proved the proposition in question. The plan of proof adopted is very simple. It is assumed that capital gets only 5 per cent. of the selling price of a commodity as profit, and that 5 per cent. goes to taxes, etc., leaving the total residue of 90 per cent. for the laborer. It is further assumed that formerly capital received 10 per cent., and taxes, etc., 5 per cent., leaving only 85 per cent. for labor. It is then concluded that while, owing to the increase of production, the absolute amount falling to capital may be increased, yet the relative proportion of the total product falling to capital has been decreased, while both the absolute amount and relative proportion falling to labor have increased.

The fallacy of the reasoning, even if we grant the facts, which are far from established, is very evident. The whole conclusion rests upon an identification of two very dissimilar things, viz., the share of a product which capital gets and the current rate of interest. The difference may be illustrated by a very simple example. Suppose A borrows capital to manufacture a commodity which requires one dollar's worth of labor to every dollar of raw material and machinery in its production. The product can be sold for \$2.10 if A can get capital for 5 per cent., and does not charge for his own labor, provided the commodity can be made and sold within one year. If, however, the manufacturer must keep the commodity on the average one year after finishing it, he must sell at an advance of ten cents, or for \$2.20. The rate of interest has remained the same, but the share of the product which capital takes is 10 instead of 5 per cent. of the first cost. If he has to hold it two years, the share of capital is still further increased. In the same way the share of capital may be maintained or even increased in the face of a falling rate of interest, if the amount of capital required in the creation of a given product increases correspondingly. That this amount has increased in certain branches of industry is highly probable; whether it has not increased in all, is a question which Mr. Atkinson does not investigate, though it lies at the very basis of all satisfactory argument on this point.

But even if this proposition were firmly established, it would be very far from justifying Mr. Atkinson's conclusions. As a social question, the problem of labor and capital would not by any means be solved by proving that the laborers as a class were getting a continually increasing share of the product, both absolutely and relatively. It is perfectly possible for the share of the laboring class to be continually increasing while the share of an individual laborer is as continually decreasing, owing to the increasing number of laborers—a case which Mr. Atkinson does not even consider worthy of mention. Further, the disturbing element in the case is not, after all, so much the heightened or lowered standard of life of the laborer, as his discontent

with his present condition. And the practical question, from that point of view, is simply, Does this increasing share in the product, even if it be an actual thing, offer any guarantee that it will finally allay that deep and apparently ever-deepening under-current of discontent which exists on the part of the laboring classes of every civilized country? Even if the share of capital is relatively decreasing, is it not probably true that, owing to the concentration of capital in larger and larger masses, it is possible for the capitalist classes to live on such a scale of extravagance as to impress more powerfully than ever on the minds of the laborers a sense of the wide disparity of their conditions? The laborer of to-day is a very different being from his predecessor of fifty or even of twenty-five years ago. As a political factor, the latter was nothing, the former is powerful. Suppose his grandfather did live in a hut, with a dirt floor and no windows, with but one room to be shared with his pig or goat, while he lives in a house of two or three rooms in a well-drained and well-lighted city; suppose the former had nothing to eat but potatoes and black bread, while the latter can indulge in meat once a day and white bread at every meal—a case by no means universal—how will all this help matters, if the desires of the laborer of to-day have so far outrun the present possibilities of satisfying them that he is in such a permanently discontented condition as to make him ready to listen to the wildest proposals of agitator and demagogue? May not his improved condition, under such circumstances, be the source of all the greater danger, since it enables him to combine with other laborers more easily, and to use with all the greater effect the ballot which will soon be in his hand in every civilized country.

Mr. Atkinson's general conception of the subject is not always consistent with itself. He claims in one place that the rate of wages is determined by conditions over which neither employer nor employee has any control whatever; while he says in another passage that the question of the rate of wages is at bottom one of capacity and character. Surely capacity and character can be influenced by both employer and employee. Aside from the above points, however, the author's presentation of the subject suffers from two fundamental errors, of which one has been mentioned above. In the first place, he divides society into two classes—capitalists and laborers. All income must accrue either to the one or the other as profits or wages. What the one class does not get, the other must. This is a highly artificial simplification of the problem. The most superficial acquaintance with the latest discussions of the problem would have kept him from this error. The theories of Cairnes and Walker, which he expressly accepts (p. 24), certainly give no ground for any such view. It is impossible to discuss the subject on such a basis without falling into serious inconsistencies.

Mr. Atkinson defines wages to be that sum which those receive who agree in advance to work for a fixed payment, either by the piece or by the day, month, or year. Profits he identifies with interest, and fixes them at 5 per cent. Where, in this scheme, shall we class the extra profits of a manufacturer over and above the current rate of interest? It is a well-known fact that they often amount to many times the current rate of interest. They cannot be wages, according to Mr. Atkinson's own definition. This portion of national income Mr. Atkinson ignores in his main presentation, though he finally drags in a portion of it half surreptitiously on page 70, under the title of "a sum necessary to secure the best administration." Of course, under this classification the landlord and rent dis-

appear completely—the latter, wherever mentioned, being identified with interest on capital; Mr. Atkinson attempts to ignore them both. He mentions land (p. 25) as an instrument useless and valueless in itself, and says that the annual product is made by the cooperation of labor and capital alone—a statement which is inconsistent with both previous and following statements. This is a very easy but a very unsatisfactory method of disposing of such a much-discussed class as landlords. Mr. Atkinson finds it impossible to conduct the discussion on such a basis, for when he attempts (appendix, p. 90) to refute a very common industrial sophism, he is compelled to assume the existence of the very class—landlords—and the very thing—rent—as something distinct from interest on capital, which up to that time he so persistently overlooks.

The second error appears most glaringly in his discussion of his fundamental formula, $x - d = e + f = i$. Here x = total annual product subject to consumption and distribution, d = profits, e = wage-fund, f = number of laborers, and i = average rate of wages. Our author proceeds to say that if x increases more rapidly than d , then e must correspondingly increase, and consequently i will increase more rapidly than d —Q. E. D.! This ignores entirely the variable nature of f , which may increase so rapidly as to make i continually less; and Mr. Atkinson, feeling undoubtedly that if he would make his point good he must demolish Malthus, designates his theory as "an abhorrent and atheistic dogma" (p. 16).

In spite of these defects, the essay is a very interesting and suggestive one. The proof that a high rate of wages does not necessarily signify high cost of production and a low rate, low cost, is very complete, and much more satisfactory than usual from the distinction strongly and rightly insisted upon by Mr. Atkinson between rate of wages and sum of wages in the manufacture of a given product—the latter being a determining element in costs of production. The appendices contain much valuable matter, which, however, rather tells against than in favor of Mr. Atkinson's general position.

The essay on the "Railway, the Farmer, and the Public" shows in a most striking manner the great service done to our national economy by the railways, and presents by the graphic method the great reduction in costs of transportation which has been brought about by the consolidation of the chief lines of railway. According to Mr. Atkinson's showing, we have reason to congratulate ourselves on almost every feature of our present railway system. Every good thing which Government interference might have brought has been attained, without any of the evils which would surely have followed had Government attempted to regulate railway traffic.

A Popular Manual of English Literature. By Maude Gillette Phillips. 2 vols. Harper & Bros. 1885.

This manual, the preface tells us, is an attempt to combine three books in one—a school handbook, a guide to the general reader, and a book of reference. Unfortunately such a combination is impracticable. A school manual of literature should aim to give the student, in a clear, concise, and continuous form, that essential information which he ought to retain in his memory as a guide in his after reading, such as the characteristics of the chief periods and the influences operative in them, with a brief account of the chief writers and their best works, and what seems to be the final verdict of sound criticism upon them. So far as possible, nothing should be admitted that is not essential and canonical. A guide for the general reader is not a book to be studied and digested, but to be consulted as

occasion arises. Here we may be given freer glances into the various matters of interest connected with, or illustrated by, any part of literature. An account of the crusades may come in apropos of Tasso, or of mediæval philosophy and cosmology apropos of Dante. The reader of either of those poets may turn to his guide for illustration and directions for further study; and, conversely, the student of history or philosophy may here be directed to exemplifications in literature. Conflicting views should be given, that the student may balance judgments and see his subject from several sides. A book of reference, again, should contain the greatest possible number of facts, indications, allusions—references, in short—given with the utmost brevity, and so arranged, systematized, and indexed that they can be found easily and quickly. It is evident that to make a book which shall be brief and yet copious, concise, and discursive, authentic in judgment while embodying widely-varying opinions, is an impossible task.

But, for all this, we do not mean to imply that the book is a bad one because the plan is a mistake. On the contrary, there is much that is excellent in it, and in many ways it deserves a place in libraries, if not in classes. One special merit is the clear recognition of the fact that the profitable study of the literature of a country must comprise some study of alien literatures. The author justly says: "Any study of the early nineteenth-century English literature which ignores Goethe and the philosophical movement in Germany, is shallow and superficial; so would be the study of the eighteenth-century writers without considering the position of France as literary dictator, or of the Elizabethan literature without considering the supremacy of Italian influence." Familiar as this view is—embodying, indeed, the precept and practice of contemporary criticism—it is much to have it laid down as a principle for the construction of a school manual; and the way in which it is carried out constitutes perhaps the most valuable feature of the book.

We are sorry not to be able to speak so favorably of the collections of critical remarks. Never would the sieve, which a famous critical body adopted as its emblem, have done better service. Many of these criticisms are worthless, and fully half are unimportant or superfluous. What use is it, when treating of a poem, to tell us that A thought it great, B carried it in his pocket, and C could repeat pages by heart? We are thankful for, and delight in, the subtle insight of De Quincey, or the warm and tender sympathy of Lowell; but who wants a citation from Southey to the effect that he "fell to the 'Faerie Queene' with relish"; or from George III., that he thought "great part of Shakespeare sad stuff"?

The compiler seems not quite at home in the earlier periods of our literature; and we have marked a number of errors which, no doubt, riper consideration would correct. For instance, speaking of 'Piers the Plowman,' she says, "the rude followers of Wat Tyler read it eagerly, and its Protestant principles exerted almost as great an influence as the preaching of Wyclif." The first statement is improbable conjecture; we have no idea what Wat Tyler's followers read, or if they read anything at all; we have no knowledge what influence the poem exerted in the fourteenth century; and to speak of its Protestant principles is absurd. So when she says that Wyclif's translation of the Bible was "the first ever effected by one person," and that it "provided the English with a literature of the highest style," one can hardly tell which of the two statements is the more surprising.

We part from the book in the hope that it may reach a second edition, as its many merits deserve; and that such edition may have the benefit of careful revision and a liberal use of the

pruning-knife. Among minor matters we suggest closer proof-reading, and a better arrangement of the useful and handy tables of authors and other persons of note. An arrangement that places Suckling before Peele, Surrey before Caxton, and sandwiches Lydgate between More and Tyndale, certainly tends to breed confusion.

Elements of Analytic Geometry. By Simon Newcomb, Professor of Mathematics, U. S. Navy. Henry Holt & Co. 1884. 12mo, pp. vii, 356.

In the first chapter of his 'Géométrie Analytique,' Auguste Comte says of that science that it constitutes "the most decisive and consequently the most difficult phase" of mathematical education, and hence concludes that "no other part of mathematical instruction so much deserves the rational solicitude of professors and the active attention of pupils." Professor Newcomb seems to be of the same opinion, and he has accordingly placed in the first chapter of his treatise a series of exercises designed to test the preparation of the student. In the note accompanying them he says: "If he [the student] can perform all the exercises with ease, he is probably well prepared to go on; if he performs them only with difficulty, he may need much assistance in understanding the subject." These exercises are in no respect more difficult than they ought to be for the purpose in view; nevertheless it is quite probable that the average college student, on first attempting them, will be inclined to think that, in the further prosecution of the study, "he may need much assistance." We may, however, remark for his encouragement, that the faithful performance of these exercises, whether "with ease" or "with difficulty," will go a long way in supplying those deficiencies of which he may become conscious.

Professor Newcomb says in his preface that he believes "it better that a student should learn a little thoroughly and understandingly than that he should go over many subjects without mastering them." He seems to have kept this principle constantly in view, and has therefore treated some subjects with great fulness and detail, while others, which usually appear in text-books, are entirely omitted. The straight line, the circle, and the three conic sections, parabola, ellipse, and hyperbola, are treated in a manner wholly in accordance with the spirit of modern geometry. After these follows a most excellent chapter devoted to the discussion of the general equation of the second degree. With this our author leaves the subject of analytic plane-geometry. Most text-books proceed to treat, generally in a very brief manner, some of the higher plane curves, such as the cissoid, conchoid, cycloid, etc. With the exception of a few exercises in chap. ii, in which the student is required to construct the loci of some equations in which the ordinate is equal to a trigonometrical function of the abscissa, Professor Newcomb ignores the whole subject. In justification of this omission he might and probably would urge, that the limits of a text-book make necessary a very imperfect and perfunctory treatment of the subject, and that by devoting the space to the more full and complete treatment of the conic sections, which this omission enables him to give, the student will become so imbued with the spirit and methods of analytic geometry that, if he desires, he may proceed, fully equipped, to the study of larger works in which the subject is satisfactorily treated.

Part 2 of the book treats of geometry of three dimensions, a subject which in many of our college text-books of analytic geometry is wholly omitted. It is constructed upon the same general plan as Part 1, and with an apparent desire to render the transition from plane to solid quantity

as easy as possible, and to enable the student to avail himself to the fullest extent of the knowledge which he may be supposed to have already acquired. The work concludes with Part 3, which is a brief introduction to some of the methods of modern geometry, or, as it perhaps might be more properly called, the geometry of the nineteenth century.

One does not look in a college text-book for any important additions to the sum of human knowledge. Its object is to present knowledge already contained in many books in such a manner that it may be most speedily and completely acquired by those who desire it. But a text-book that is a mere compilation is generally worthless. It should be the product of a single mind, working, it may be entirely, upon materials originally discovered by others, but which it has made completely its own, and imparting the results of its operations according to a clearly conceived and self-consistent plan. Such a work Professor Newcomb's seems to us to be. One or two matters of detail are all that our space will permit us to notice. On page 5 of his treatise he introduces with the necessary explanations a new symbol, consisting of three horizontal parallel lines (—), which he uses in two classes of equations instead of the ordinary sign of equality. For reasons which we have no room to explain, we do not regard this as necessary, and we do regard the introduction into mathematics or any other science of a new symbol or term for which very strong reasons cannot be given, as a small misfortune. But we have another objection. If our memory is not at fault, this symbol was invented by Gauss in the early part of the present century, and introduced by him to denote the notion of congruence, which it is not necessary to explain further than to state that it is quite different from the meaning attached to the symbol by Professor Newcomb. It was afterward used by Möbius, in his 'Barycentrischer Kalkül,' in accordance with the usage of Gauss. In the second edition of his 'Ausdehnungslehre' (1862), Grassmann introduced the symbol with due acknowledgments to Gauss and Möbius, and a few years later it was employed by Montferrier in his 'Encyclopédie Mathématique' in the same manner as by Gauss. In view of this long usage it would seem advisable not to give a different meaning to the symbol, but to invent a new one if any be necessary. To students who use Professor Newcomb's work as a text-book it will, of course, make no difference.

In treating geometry of three dimensions, Professor Newcomb uses the symbols X, Y, Z as applied to coördinates in space, in the same manner in which they are used in physics and astronomy, though this differs somewhat from the manner in which they are generally used in treatises on analytic geometry. On the whole, we think it a desirable innovation. It is certainly very absurd in a matter which, abstractly, is entirely arbitrary, to learn to use them in one way in pure mathematics, and then be obliged to use them in another in all practical applications.

A misprint of some importance occurs on p. 15, lines 23 and 24. The signs of the coördinates of points in the fourth quarter of space are there assigned to those in the third, and vice versa.

The next and concluding volume of Professor Newcomb's course, treating of the Calculus, will be looked for with perhaps more interest than any preceding one.

Studies in Animal Painting. With 18 Colored Plates from Water-color Drawings. By Frederick Tayler, late President of the Royal Society of Painters in Water Colors. Cassell & Co.

If there be no royal road to Art, there is, at least, a cheap one to drawing, though it may be doubted

if the teaching of either by chromo-lithography has done any good on the whole. What it may be supposed to have done in making good pictures superficially familiar to the masses, has been quite counteracted by its having facilitated the spread of bad methods of execution, and the unintelligent following of good methods which makes them bad in their influence. The only efficient and wise training in drawing is to teach the pupils to see clearly and draw distinctly and accurately, in the largest manner, what is set before them to draw. Nothing can be more destructive to all sense of fidelity to form or color than to be taught to draw certain things in certain conventional ways, as the old drawing-masters used to prescribe foliage and rock form, and as, since chromos came in, the modern ones compound tints for certain objects and effects. If the pupil has any genuine perception of color, this process will blunt it, and if he has none he will do nothing good in color. As to Art, there is so little notion of teaching it nowadays, except in what is done in some of the more important schools, that no mention need be made of it. What we most want in Art is individuality, and this is absolutely stifled by any such system as is taught in the drawing-books of which the one before us is an example, while for coloring (tinting, perhaps, would be a better term) in realistic drawing from nature the prescribing of tints by rule and measure is the least apt means to make the pupil see what the color of nature is.

For amateurs who have no higher object than amusement, these books furnish a cheap source of satisfaction, and when they know that a donkey is to be painted mainly in "raw umber with a mixture of light red and cobalt for the gray," "with some touches of Vandyke brown and burnt sienna about the nose-band, mane, and tail," and "in the foreground raw and burnt sienna," it makes art seem cheap and easy in their eyes—which is all that they want. This method of education is the *reductio ad absurdum* of that by which noted drawing-masters make comfortable incomes by teaching art at a guinea a lesson, and graduate their pupils in a dozen lessons, and which has had no insignificant part in the modern degradation of Art, and destruction of what influence it might have had if kept more sincere and individual, and less closely counterfeited.

Emile; or, Concerning Education. Extracts, containing the principal elements of pedagogy found in the first three books. By Jules Steeg. Translated by Eleanor Worthington. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1885.

M. STEEG's introduction and notes show him to

be well aware that 'Emile' has little place in the pedagogy of our day except as a stimulus. At every turn one must doubt it, differ from it, read between the lines, as he says. Those will perhaps derive most profit from it who come to it from the most opposite reading possible—say, from a course in Darwin. The intellectual pleasure of contrasting or even of reconciling two such geniuses as Rousseau and the author of the 'Origin of Species,' is not inconsiderable, and there is much food for reflection in the conditions which made both the Frenchman and the Englishman revolutionaries in the thought of their time.

The translation of such a master of style as Rousseau must forever present great difficulties, and these are increased by the frequent subtlety and obscurity of his thought. For this reason, doubtless, English versions of the 'Emile' are neither numerous nor of recent date. A few test passages of the one before us will serve as illustrations. We read on page 13:

"Now, of these three different educations, that of nature does not depend upon us; that of circumstances depends upon us only in certain respects; that of men is the only one of which we are really masters, and that solely because we think we are. For who can hope to direct entirely the speech and conduct of all who surround a child?"

The phrase we have underlined has in this place no logical force or meaning. It stands for the French "par supposition," for which some such rendering as "theoretically" must be adopted. "Even of this we are masters only in imagination," runs the Edinburgh translation of 1773. Moreover, we see no good reason for departing from the punctuation of the original, which puts a period after "respects." The next sentence would then read: "That of men is the only one of which we are really masters, and that only theoretically—for who can hope, etc."

Miss Worthington's version proceeds, without a break:

"As soon, therefore, as education becomes an art, its success is almost impossible, since the agreement of circumstances necessary to this success is independent of personal effort. All that the utmost care can do is to approach more or less nearly our object."

Here, again, the connection is obscured. "Si tôt donc que l'éducation est un art," runs the original, and this requires to be interpreted, "To the extent, therefore, that education is artificial," or, more freely, "Our systematic education, therefore."

To go back a little, in the same chain of argument, we read: "What we learn by our own experience about things that interest us, is the education of circumstances." Here we have a very

ill-chosen equivalent for "affectent," which signifies environment and contact, quite in the neutral sense of our "affect." "The things that interest us" is also to be criticised as implying "choses" and not "objets" in the original, whereas the distinction between these two terms is at least as great as in English. In the next sentence but one, concerning the different lessons of the three sorts of education, the desideratum is that "they all touch upon the same points and tend towards the same object"—in the French, "tombent toutes sur les mêmes points." Here the sense would be more exactly expressed by "be applied to the same points." Niceties like these are not unworthy of the work itself or of the end the compiler and translator had in view; and we shall not, we trust, be thought captious in insisting upon them.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Drake, C. D. A Treatise on the Law of Suits by Attachment in the United States. Sixth edition, revised. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
- Emerson, G. E., and Flint, C. L. Manual of Agriculture. Revised by Dr. Chas. A. Goessmann. Orange Judd Co. \$1.50.
- Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. XVIII. Ora-Pht. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
- Evans, W. F. The Primitive Mind-Cure. Boston: H. H. Carter & Co.
- Evans, W. F. Mental Medicine: a Theoretical and Practical Treatise on Medical Psychology. Boston: H. H. Carter & Co.
- Fiske, John. American Political Ideas, Viewed from the Standpoint of Universal History. Harper & Bros. \$1.
- Flemming, H. A Carpet Knight: a Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.25.
- Fenton, F. St. Paul's Epistles in Modern English. De Witt C. Lent. \$1.
- Furlong, A. Echoes of Memory. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
- Gildersleeve, B. L. Pindar: the Olympian and Pythian Odes, with an introductory essay, notes, and indexes. Harper & Brothers. \$1.50.
- Gray, M. A Treatise on Communication by Telegraph. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
- Griswold, W. M. An Index to the Leading British Reviews and Magazines for 1882, 1883, and 1884. Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index.
- Hare, A. J. C. Sketches in Holland and Scandinavia. George Routledge & Sons. \$1.
- Hearn, L. "Gombo Zèbes." Little Dictionary of Creole Proverbs. Selected from Six Creole Dialects. Will H. Coleman.
- Hovey, W. A. Mind-Reading and Beyond. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
- Inspiration. A Clerical Symposium. Thomas Whittaker \$1.50.
- Jones, Sarah J. Words and Ways; or, What They Said, and What Came of It. Phillips & Hunt. \$1.
- Keece, W. L. William E. Burton: Actor, Author, and Manager. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.50.
- Lawrence, W. Decisions of the First Comptroller of the United States Treasury Department. Vol. IV. 1883. Washington.
- Lang, A. Rhymes à la Mode. Scribner & Welford.
- Leslie, Emma. Dearer than Life: a Tale of the Times of William III. Phillips & Stowe. \$1.
- Lodge, H. C. The Works of Alexander Hamilton. (Limited Edition.) Vol. I. \$5. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Ludlow, James M. Concentric Chart of History. Funk & Wagnalls. \$2.
- Mercer, A. G. Bible Characters. Selections from Sermons, 1817-1882. Memoir by Manton Marble. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.
- Meyer, F. H. Havana Cigars. How they are Made and Sold. Philadelphia: F. D. Canfield & Co.
- McNosh, Rev. J. The New Departure in College Education. In Reply to President Eliot. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 15 cents.
- McTear, Bishop H. N. A History of Methodism. Nashville: Southern Methodist Publishing House.
- Neill, E. D. Virginia Vetusta, during the Reign of James I. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.

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